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DEL MAR'S
ENGLISH GRAMMAR


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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

IN WHICH

THE RULES OF ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX

ARE CLEARLY EXPOUNDED,

IN A

SERIES OF FAMILIAR LECTURES:

DESIGNED FOR

THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND SELF-TEACHING; AND PARTICULARLY ADAPTED FOR THOSE WHO LEARN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

BY E. DEL MAR,

AUTHOR OF AN IMPROVED ANGLO-SPANISH GRAMMAR,

ETC., ETC.

UTINAM DESIDERIUM MULTITUDINIS IMPLEAM.

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☛ *The Key to the Exercises may be had separately.*



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PREFACE.

THE number of English Grammars has latterly increased in proportion as the desire for instruction is become more general; nevertheless, every compiler in bringing forward another Grammar must have some motive for doing so: this ought to be principally the desire of being useful to youth; and although several of the English Grammars extant have many claims to merit, the hope of rendering still further assistance to the learner, generally, has induced the Author to publish the present compilation, which is the result of many years' experience in teaching Grammar *vivâ voce*. The Lectures which it comprises are such as he has been in the habit of delivering to his pupils, whether in class or individually; and having found that they seldom failed to accomplish the desired end, he has ventured to offer them to the public in this small volume.

In preparing these Lectures, the Author has frequently had recourse to such Grammars as enjoy the most repute, and which, in his own estimation, were the best to be consulted.

More than ordinary attention has been paid to impart to the student a thorough knowledge of the several parts of speech; the nature of the cases of nouns; the use of the different kinds of verbs; the proper employment of the tenses, and, in short, it has been the Author's aim through-

out to explain every difficulty in Grammar as clearly and concisely as possible, in language that appeals to the reason rather than to the memory of the pupil.

In the method of Parsing pursued in this Grammar, he flatters himself that he has rendered considerable assistance to the teacher, and much facility to the student in going through this important exercise.

As the cultivation of foreign languages is now become an almost indispensable branch of education to the English student, a Grammar so arranged, as to clear the way to arrive at their knowledge with facility, will, the Author trusts, be considered a desideratum: in the whole arrangement of this work, he has had this object in view.

In conclusion, the Author begs to state, that wherever he has differed from other Grammarians, it has been neither for the display of his own method, nor with the view of depreciating the merits of the productions of his predecessors; but wherever he has, in any manner, deviated from the trodden path, it has been only when he considered that he might render greater facility to the pupil. Nor does he presume to hope that his book will, in all its parts, please every body; but in its general arrangement, and in the plan he has adopted to lessen the labour of both teacher and pupil, he trusts that those who may make use of it will find it to answer the intended purpose. And should this work meet with as favourable a reception from the public as his other elementary works have experienced, the Author will consider the pains bestowed on it amply rewarded.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART THE FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

LECTURE I.

1. GRAMMAR is that science which teaches the just manner of expressing our thoughts, either in speaking or in writing. It is that collection of rules, drawn from the established usages of a nation, speaking a language with propriety and precision. Grammar is the only effectual means by which we can acquire a perfect knowledge of language; by it, we guard against error, and impropriety of expression, and are enabled to solve whatever doubts may occur in speaking or writing. This definition explains the nature of grammar, as applied to all languages—particular grammar teaches the principles peculiar to any particular language, as the English language; to obtain a correct knowledge of which, we must conform to the rules and usages adopted by the best speakers and writers of that language.

2. Grammar is divided into four branches, namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

3. ORTHOGRAPHY treats on the nature and power of letters, and on their various combinations as employed in the formation of syllables and words.

4. ETYMOLOGY (or *Analogy*) treats on the origin of words, their distribution into different classes, the relation they bear to each other, their derivation, and the various changes or modifications which they undergo in the formation of sentences:—thus the words, *speak*, *speaking*, *spoken*, are all derived from *speak; virtuously*, is derived from *virtuous*, which latter is derived from *virtue*. Words are, therefore, either *primitive* or *derivative;* primitive words are those which are not derived from any other word in the same language; thus, *nature*, *man*, are primitive words; but derivative words do take their origin from other words of the same language; thus, *natural*, *manly*, are derived from *nature*, *man*.

5. SYNTAX teaches the method of constructing sentences according to the rules of grammar. By Syntax we are taught how to put words in their proper places, that our sentences may be correct, clear, and incapable of being misconstrued.

6. PROSODY teaches the true sound and just pronunciation of words, and points out the syllable on which the accent, or stress of voice, should be laid. Prosody treats also on the laws of versification.

LECTURE II.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. The English Alphabet consists of twenty-six letters, which are divided into *vowels* and *consonants*. A *vowel* makes a complete sound of itself, without the assistance of any other letter:—the vowels are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *w*, *y*. Each of the vowels except *w* and *y* may form a syllable by itself. *Consonants* have no distinct sound by themselves, but in combination with vowels they form syllables and words. The consonants are, *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *x*, *z*. When *w* and *y* begin a syllable they are *consonants*.

2. A *syllable* is a part of a word, and is either formed of one vowel, or more than one, or of a combination of vowels

and consonants; as, *a'-ble*, *aw'-ful*, *of-fi'-cial*. A word of *one* syllable, is called a *monosyllable;* of *two*, a *dissyllable;* of *three*, a *trisyllable;* of *more* than three, a *polysyllable*.

3. A *diphthong* is the union of *two* vowels in one syllable; as *ea* in *bread; ow* in *bow*.

Diphthongs are divided into *proper* and *improper*. In a *proper* diphthong, both vowels are sounded; as *oi* in *boil*. In an *improper* diphthong only one of the vowels is heard; as *ea* in *clean*.

4. A *Triphthong* is the union of *three* vowels in a syllable, as, *iew* in *view; eau* in *beauty*.

The following are the diphthongs and triphthongs in the English language:—

Diphthongs.—ae, ai, ao, au, aw, ay, ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey, ie, io, oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, oy, ua, ue, ui, uy.

Triphthongs.—eau, eou, ewe, eye, ieu, iew, iou, uoy.

LECTURE III.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. The words of a language are generally arranged under a variety of classes, called *parts of speech*, namely, *articles*, *nouns*, *adjectives*, *pronouns*, *verbs*, *adverbs*, *prepositions*, *conjunctions*, and *interjections*. Therefore every word in a language must belong to one or the other of these classes.

DEFINITION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

2. ARTICLES are little words, which by themselves have no meaning; but are put before nouns to point them out. The articles in the English language are *a* or *an*, and *the*. Example, *a man*, *a pen*, *an oak*, *the garden*, *the books*.

3. NOUNS express the *name* of any thing in being, whether animate or inanimate, material or ideal: any thing that can be felt, seen, heard, or conceived in the mind, is a noun; as *John*, *house*, *London*, *city*, *horse*, *music*, *wind*, *wisdom*,

love, *hatred:* any word, in short, is a noun, that makes sense of itself, without the assistance of any other word to explain it.

Some grammarians have called this sort of words *substantives*, as they are applied to every thing that has *substance;* but the word *substantive* does not appear adequately applied to all sorts of words comprised under the head of nouns; since there are many nouns that have no real substance in their nature; as for instance, *pleasure*, *joy*, *grief*, *memory*, *time*, *virtue*, &c.

There are various species of nouns, which will be explained in the Etymology of this part of speech.

4. ADJECTIVES are words that denote some *character*, *quality*, *property*, *dimension*, or *appearance* of a noun; as, *a* good *man*, *a* powerful *horse*, *the* hard *iron*, *a* large *house*, dark *clouds*. Here the adjective *good*, expresses the *character* of the noun *man; powerful*, the *quality* of the *horse; hard*, the *property* of the *iron; large*, the *dimension* of the *house;* and *dark*, the *appearance* of the *clouds*.

5. PRONOUNS are words which are used in the place of nouns, to avoid their too frequent repetition. Without this part of speech, discourse would be rendered tiresome. For instance, in the sentence, *Henry says that he saw Amelia, and gave her the letter, which however she would not read; but she returned it to him immediately;* were it not for the pronouns *he*, *her*, *which*, *she*, *she*, *it*, *him*, we should be compelled, in order to render the sentence intelligible, to repeat every noun, the place of which these pronouns supply, and to say, *Henry says that* Henry *saw Amelia, and gave* Amelia *the letter*, *the* letter, *however*, Amelia *would not read; but* Amelia *returned the* letter *to* Henry *immediately*.

There are several classes of Pronouns, the nature and use of which will be explained in the Etymology of this part of speech.

6. VERBS are words that denote *existence* and *action*. They describe the various *states* of *being* of things animate and inanimate, corporeal and ideal, and all the various *actions* attributable to these. The verb *to be*, which means *to*

exist, denotes existence in an indefinite sense: *to sit*, *to sleep*, *to stand*, &c., describe various states of being in which objects may be found: *to write*, *to break*, *to strike*, &c., denote actions of the body: *to love*, *to hate*, *to consider*, &c., are actions referable to the mind. Whatever manner an object is described to be, or to exist in, is expressed by a verb; and whatever action is done by any person or thing is also expressed by a verb. A verb is very properly considered the principal word in a sentence, since no phrase, however short, can be formed without a verb expressed or understood.

The different species of Verbs will be separately treated on in their Etymology.

7. ADVERBS are words employed with *verbs*, *adjectives*, and sometimes with *adverbs* themselves. When employed with reference to *verbs*, they express the *manner* of their action or being, or some circumstance attending them; as, *He writes well;* in which the adverb *well*, describes the *manner* of the writing: and in *She is ill*, the adverb *ill*, denotes a circumstance attending on the state of *being*, expressed by the verb *is*. When used with reference to *adjectives*, they express the *degree* of their *quality;* as, *An extremely good man;* in which the adverb *extremely* describes the *degree* in which the adjective *good* is to be taken. When joined to other *adverbs*, they explain the *extent* of their signification; as, *He speaks very correctly;* in which the adverb *very*, specifies to what *extent* the meaning of the adverb *correctly* is carried.

The meaning of the word Adverb, is, *joined to a verb;* but as we see by the foregoing examples, that adverbs are added to other parts of speech besides verbs, the signification of the term *adverb*, does not convey an adequate description of its use. Adverbs are words that express some peculiar *modification* in the meaning of *verbs*, *adverbs*, and *adjectives*. If we say, *I wrote a letter to him*, we speak very indeterminately as regards the *time*, and the *manner* of writing: but in saying, *I wrote a letter to him yesterday in haste*, the adverb *yesterday* describes the *time*, and the adverbial expression *in haste*, explains the *manner* of writing.

Again, in the phrase, *He is a truly good man*, the adverb *truly*, adds a certain degree of meaning to the adjective *good*, which the latter could not convey by itself.

8. PREPOSITIONS are chiefly employed before nouns and pronouns, to point out the relation which these have with some other noun or pronoun in a sentence; or, they point out the situation or position in which nouns or pronouns exist with regard to each other; as, *The beauty* of *the poem. She took shelter* in *the house. He was killed* by *an arrow. John purchased the book* for *him. He gave the pen* to *Henry.* In these examples *of*, *in*, *by*, *for*, and *to*, are the prepositions.

There are but few prepositions in language; they serve to point out the cases of nouns and pronouns, and when the student has read over the Lecture on *Case*, he will better comprehend their utility.

9. CONJUNCTIONS serve to connect words, and parts of a sentence; as, *He* and *she will go*, though *I will stay.* Here the conjunction *and*, unites the pronouns *he* and *she*, while the other conjunction, *though*, unites the two members of the sentence. The use of this part of speech will be explained in its Etymology and Syntax.

10. INTERJECTIONS are a kind of ejaculations used to denote some emotion of the mind, and which, properly speaking, are not *words*, nor should they be considered as forming any part of the grammatical construction of a sentence. They are mere sounds, expressive of some affection of the mind, at the time of speaking; such as, *O! ah! alas! pshaw! lo! poh!* &c.; or certain exclamations used for the purpose of calling the attention, such as, *hark! ho! halloo!* &c. Example, *Ah sad! Alas! what a pity. Oh how delightful! Hollo there!* Nothing further need be said about Interjections, since they have no agreement with any other part of speech.

11. The foregoing definitions of the several parts of speech are here given, preparatory to the treating of them respectively in their Etymology and Syntax, wherein their proper employment and uses will be fully explained. Let it be

observed, meanwhile, that it sometimes occurs, that the same word may appear to belong to more than one part of speech; as for instance, in the example, *You* demand *the money of me, but I cannot comply with your* demand; in which the word *demand*, in the first member of the sentence is a *verb;* but in the second it is a *noun*. Again, the word *that*, is sometimes a *pronoun*, and at others a *conjunction:* in the sentence, *Give me* that *book*, the word *that*, is a *demonstrative pronoun*, and a *conjunction* in, *He said* that *I might go;* and a *relative pronoun* in, *The book* that *you are reading*. But though written alike, they are not in reality the same word when they belong to different parts of speech; and to ascertain the part of speech to which a word belongs, we must have recourse to the meaning of the word.

LECTURE IV.

1. We have just seen how the words of a language are divided into different classes; of these, in English, the *article*, the *adjective*, the *noun*, the *pronoun*, and the *verb*, undergo certain changes, sometimes by a slight addition to, or alteration in their orthography; as from *house*, *houses;* from *man*, *men;* and sometimes by very material alterations, and even a total difference of spelling; as from *seek*, *sought;* from *be*, *was;* from *I*, *me;* from *good*, *better*, &c. These variations are called *accidence*, and the parts of speech which are subject to the like and other variations are called *declinable*, the others are called *indeclinable*.

We will now proceed to the Etymology of the parts of speech respectively, and point out the peculiarities in each, and first of the

ETYMOLOGY OF ARTICLES.

2. There are two articles in the English language, the *definite*, and the *indefinite*. The definite article is *the;* and *a* or *an* the indefinite. When we wish to define, or to point particularly to an object, we employ the *definite* article; as, The *man that brought* the *letter*. The *horse that was sent*

to the *stable*. The *books that are in* the *library*. But when we do not allude to any particular object, the *indefinite* article is used; as, A *man brought* a *letter*. *He was kicked by* a *horse*. *Give me* a *book*. Here, no particular *man*, *letter*, *horse*, or *book* is alluded to.

3. The article *a*, becomes *an*, when it immediately precedes a word beginning with a vowel, or an *h* mute (that is, an *h* which is not sounded); as, *an apple; an idle man; an hour; an heir*. But *a* alone is retained before words beginning with a consonant, or an aspirated *h*; as, *a table; a box; a horse; a house*. However, before words beginning with an aspirated *h*, accented on the *second* syllable, *an* should be used; as, *an heróic deed*. *A*, is also employed before words beginning with the long sound of *u*; as, *a union; a eulogist; a ewer*; also before *w* and *y*; as, *a word; a youth*.

4. The definite article is employed before nouns both in the singular and plural number; but the indefinite can only be used before nouns in the singular number.

LECTURE V.

ETYMOLOGY OF NOUNS.

1. The student is referred to Lecture 3, Par. 3, for the definition of this part of speech. In nouns we have to consider the *kinds*, the *numbers*, the *genders*, and the *cases*.

2. Nouns are of two kinds, namely *common* and *proper*. The term *common* is applied to that kind of nouns which embraces within it every object of a species; as *man*, *star*, *province*, *river*, &c. There are many *men*, *stars*, *provinces*, *rivers*, &c., but these names are respectively applied to them in common; hence the appellation *common* nouns. But *proper* nouns are those names which are appropriated to persons and places, and to things which cannot be arranged into species: as *William*, *Elizabeth*, *London*, *Paris*, *God*, *Paradise*, *the Atlantic*, *the Equator*, &c. There are, of course, many men named *William*, and many women named *Elizabeth*, yet these names are not common to *all* men and women.

3. NUMBER. Nouns are varied in their form, so as to denote *one*, or *many* of their kind: nouns have therefore two numbers; the *singular* to denote *one;* as *a book*, *a house*, *an apple;* and the plural to denote *more* than one; as, *books*, *houses*, *apples*.

4. The plural number of the greater part of nouns, is formed by the addition of an *s*, to the noun in the singular number, as in the foregoing examples: the exceptions to this rule are seen in the following table.

Nouns ending in	Form their plural in	Examples:	
		Singular.	Plural.
ch, sh, s, x	es	{ watch, bush { glass, box	watches, bushes glasses, boxes
ch, having the sound of *k*	s	monarch, epoch	monarchs, epochs
o, preceded by a consonant, form their plural sometimes in	s	canto, grotto	cantos, grottos
and sometimes in.....	es	cargo, hero	cargoes, heroes
o, preceded by a vowel follow the general rule	s	embryo, folio	embryos, folios
y, preceded by a consonant, change the *y* into	ies	lady, fly	ladies, flies
y, preceded by a vowel, follow the general rule	s	day, essay	days, essays
Proper names ending in *y*	s	Henry, Mary	Henrys, Marys
f, fe, change these letters into	ves	wolf, loaf	wolves, loaves
Except those ending in *oof, ief, arf*, which follow the general rule:.....	s	hoof, grief, scarf	hoofs, griefs, scarfs
the word *thief* excepted	ves	thief	thieves
Staff, meaning a stick..	ves	staff	staves
——————— an ensign of office	s	staff	staffs
fife, a whistle	s	fife	fifes

The following are very irregular in the formation of their plurals :—

Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
child	children	mouse	mice	pea	pease
foot	feet	man	men	penny	pence
goose	geese	woman	women	tooth	teeth
louse	lice	ox	oxen		

The plural of *brother*, is sometimes written *brethren*. The plural of *die*, for gaming, is *dice;* and for coining, it is *dies*.

5. There are some nouns, which, in their nature have a plural signification, and are never used in the singular number; such as, *pincers*, *tongs*, *nuptials*, &c.

6. Those nouns which express the different qualities of the heart and mind, have no plural; such as, *hatred*, *mildness*, *benevolence*, *shame*, &c.

7. There are some nouns which are employed alike in both numbers; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *species*, *mathematics*, *pneumatics*, *politics*, *hydrostatics*, &c.

8. There are others, which, though frequently used in a plural sense, have not a plural form; as, *ancestry*, *progeny*, *nobility*, &c.

9. The nouns *news*, and *alms*, are generally used as singular, and *pains*, as plural.

10. There are several names of animal, vegetable, and mineral substances, and liquids, which have no plurals; such as, *flesh*, *marrow*, *corn*, *rice*, *silver*, *lime*, *milk*, &c.

11. The noun *means*, is written alike in both numbers; as, *He could not have recourse to a more effectual* means, &c. *The several* means *which they employed*, &c.

12. There are some nouns to which custom allows no change in their plural signification; as, *Ten* sail *of the line*. *Two thousand* stand *of arms*. *Five thousand* cavalry *and* infantry. *Two* score. *Eight* stone, &c.

13. Nouns formed by a noun and an adjective, or by two nouns connected by a preposition, in forming their plurals, admit the inflection in the first word; as, *adjutants-general*, *courts-martial*, *justices-of-peace*, *sons-in-law*.

14. Compound nouns formed of two or more nouns,

admit the inflection in the last noun; as, *book-cases, ink-stands.*

15. There are several nouns, chiefly from the dead languages, which retain their original plurals when employed in English. The following is a list of them:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Amanuensis	amanuenses
analysis	analyses
animalculum	animalcula
antithesis	antitheses
apex	apices
appendix	appendices / appendixes
arcanum	arcana
asylum	asyla / asylums
automaton	automata / automatons
axis	axes
bandit	banditti
basis	bases
beau	beaux
calculus	calculi
calx	calces
cherub	cherubim / cherubs
colossus	colossi
convolvulus	convolvuli
crisis	crises
criterion	criteria
datum	data
desideratum	desiderata
diæresis	diæreses
dogma	dogmata / dogmas
effluvium	effluvia
ellipsis	ellipses
emphasis	emphases
emporium	emporia / emporiums
encomium	encomia / encomiums
ephemeron	ephemera
erratum	errata
focus	foci
formula	formulæ
forum	fora
fungus	fungi, funguses
genius	genii, *aërial beings* / geniuses, *persons of genius*
genus	genera
gymnasium	gymnasia
hypothesis	hypotheses
ignis-fatuus	ignes fatui
index	indices, *algebraic quantities* / indexes, *pointers*, or *tables of contents*
lamina	laminæ
lyceum	lycea / lyceums
magus	magi
mausoleum	mausolea
medium	media
memorandum	memoranda / memorandums
metamorphosis	metamorphoses
miasma	miasmata
momentum	momenta
monsieur	messieurs
museum	musea / museums
narcissus	narcissi
nautilus	nautili
nebula	nebulæ
nucleus	nuclei
parenthesis	parentheses
parhelion	parhelia
perihelion	perihelia

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
phasis	phases	stamen	stamens, *the fine threads in flowers*
phenomenon	phenomena		
premium	premia, premiums	seraph	seraphim, seraphs
proboscis	proboscides	stimulus	stimuli
radius	radii	stratum	strata
ranunculus	ranunculi, ranunculuses	thesis	theses
sarcophagus	sarcophagi	tumulus	tumuli
stamen	stamina, *the solids of the human body*	vertex	vertices
		vortex	vortices
		virtuoso	virtuosi

16. Some nouns are called *collective*, which grammarians have subdivided into *general* and *partitive;* classing under the head of *general*, all those nouns that represent a distinctive mass of objects, or an organized body; as, *a nation, an army;* and applying the term *partitive* to such as do not comprehend any determined mass or body; as, *a multitude, a mob.*

17. GENDER.—Gender is that property in nouns which marks the distinction of sex. The English language, in this respect, follows the order of nature—and all nouns that name any thing of the *male* kind, are of the *masculine* gender; as *man, horse*, &c.; those that name *females*, are *feminine;* as, *woman, mare*, &c.; and those that name *inanimate* objects, or such animate beings in which the gender is not perceptible, are *neuter;* as, *house, table, fish, worm*, &c. This is always the case, except when a poetical licence is allowed to be taken, by which we, as it were, personify inanimate objects, and make of our descriptions more animated pictures. Thus, in speaking of the *sun*, we might say, *Behold the sun in* his *bright career;* of the *moon*, Her *soft radiant orb;* of a *ship*, *How nobly* she *mounts the foaming billows.*

To these three genders may be added a fourth, namely, the *common* gender, which applies to those nouns which are either of the masculine or feminine gender; as, *parent, relation, cousin, friend, neighbour, companion*, &c.

18. There are three ways to distinguish the gender of nouns.

1. By different words; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bachelor	maid	horse	mare
beau	belle	husband	wife
boar	sow	king	queen
boy	girl	lad	lass
brother	sister	lord	lady
buck	doe	man	woman
bull	cow	master	mistress
bullock, ox, *or* steer	heifer	milter	spawner
		nephew	niece
cock	hen	ram	ewe
colt	filly	singer	songstress *or* singer
dog	bitch		
drake	duck	sloven	slut
earl	countess	son	daughter
father	mother	stag	hind
friar	nun	uncle	aunt
gander	goose	wizard	witch
hart	roe	sir	madam

2. By a different Termination; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbot	abbess	executor	executrix
actor	actress	governor	governess
administrator	administratrix	heir	heiress
adulterer	adulteress	hero	heroine
arbiter	arbitress	host	hostess
author	authoress	jew	jewess
baron	baroness	landgrave	landgravine
bridegroom	bride	lion	lioness
benefactor	benefactress	marquis *or* marquess	marchioness
caterer	cateress		
chanter	chantress	mayor	mayoress
conductor	conductress	patron	patroness
count	countess	peer	peeress
deacon	deaconess	poet	poetess
duke	duchess	priest	priestess
elector	electress	prince	princess
emperor	empress	prior	prioress
enchanter	enchantress	prophet	prophetess

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
protector	protectress	tiger	tigress
shepherd	shepherdess	traitor	traitress
songster	songstress	tutor	tutoress
sorcerer	sorceress	viscount	viscountess
sultan	sultaness *or* sultana	votary	votaress
		widower	widow

3. By prefixing an explanatory word; as

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
A cock-sparrow	a hen-sparrow	a he-goat	a she-goat
a man-servant	a maid-servant	a male-child	a female-child, &c.

19. With regard to the feminine terms, *authoress* and *poetess*, they are only used when the discrimination of sex is indispensable; but in speaking generally of authors and poets, the masculine term is applied both to male and female; for we may say, He *or* she *is the best* author *or* poet *of the age*. When, however, we wish to name any *female*, distinguished among her sex as an author or a poet, we then make use of the *feminine* term, and say, She *is the best* authoress *or* poetess *of the age*.

LECTURE VI.

1. The Cases. This being a subject of the highest importance in grammar, and one which demands great attention, a separate lecture has been devoted to it. Many learners, from not being sufficiently well acquainted with this essential part of grammar, very frequently find themselves embarrassed, not only when translating from one language into another, but in comprehending the precise meaning of difficult passages in their own language *.

* The pupil cannot thoroughly comprehend the nature of the cases until he becomes acquainted with the peculiar offices of *verbs* and *prepositions*; therefore, until he arrives at a competent knowledge of the properties of these two parts of speech, he need only apply himself to such portions of the present Lecture as the teacher may judge him capable of comprehending, leaving the remainder to be explained to him hereafter.

2. The *cases* point out the different positions in which nouns and pronouns stand with regard to other nouns and pronouns, or to verbs and prepositions. For instance, a noun that *governs* a verb, is in a very different position, or case, to a noun that is governed *by* a verb. In the sentence, *I struck the man*, the *man* is in a very different position, or state, to what he is in the sentence, *The man struck me*. In the first example, he is in the case of *governing* the verb *to strike;* he is the *agent* of that verb; but in the second he is *governed by* the verb, and is the *object* upon whom the *action*, or the *energy* of the verb, falls. In the first case, the man *acts;* in the second, he is *acted upon*.

3. Besides these two cases of *acting*, and being *acted upon*, a noun may be found in the case of *possessing* a thing; as, *This is Edward's sword:*—here, *Edward* is the *possessor* of the noun *sword*. It may likewise be in the case of having something *sent* or *directed* to it; that is, it may be in the case of *receiving* something; as, *I sent the letter to the captain*. Here the *captain* is the *receiver* of the noun *letter*, which was *sent* or *directed* to him. Or, it may be in the case of having something *separated*, or *taken away* from it; as, *He took the book from the boy:*—here we see that the *boy* is in the case of having the noun *book taken from* him. Or it may be in the case of being *instrumental* in the performance of an action; as, *The letter was carried by John:* and here we see that *John* was *instrumental* in conveying the noun *letter*. Here, then, are nouns exhibited in five different positions or cases; namely, 1st, in the case of *acting;* 2dly, in that of being *acted upon;* 3dly, in that of *possessing;* 4thly, in that of *receiving;* and 5thly, in that of having something *separated* from it, or in being *instrumental* in the performance of an action. These different cases have had peculiar names given to them by grammarians; as the *nominative*, the *genitive* or *possessive*, the *dative*, the *accusative* or *objective*, and the *ablative*. The nominative denotes the person or thing that *acts;* the *genitive*, the person or thing that is the *possessor;* the *dative*, the *receiver;* the *accusative*, the *sufferer* from an action; and the *ablative* denotes *either*

the person or thing that has something *taken from* it; or that is *instrumental* in the doing of an action.

4. The names by which the cases are designated are of Latin origin; and the following is the manner in which nouns are declined in Latin and in English.

Nominative	Dominus,	*The Lord.*
Genitive, or Possessive	Domini,	*Of the Lord, or the Lord's.*
Dative	Domino,	*To the Lord.*
Accusative, or Objective	Dominum,	*The Lord.*
Ablative	Domino,	*By the Lord.*

We here see, that in Latin no article nor preposition is required to point out the cases of the noun, the termination alone of the noun being adequate to this purpose: but in English, prepositions and articles are required for this end; and their office is precisely the same as that of the terminations in the nouns in Latin. The *possessive* case, however, is frequently formed by an addition to the noun, as we see above, *The Lord's*. Personal pronouns, in English, are also subject to vary their form in some cases.

5. The greater part of writers of English grammars give but three cases, namely, the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*. A knowledge of these three cases may, perhaps, suffice for those who apply themselves to English grammar alone. However, there are instances, even in English, in which a perfect acquaintance with the five cases is not only useful, but indispensable: and another motive for introducing them here, is the facility which the knowledge of them affords to the English learner when he applies himself to the study of foreign languages; since then a perfect knowledge of their use will become still more indispensable.

6. We will now proceed to the explanation and application of the cases: observe, first, that the nominative being the case that governs, is itself never governed: the accusative is governed by verbs; and the genitive, the dative, and the ablative, are governed by prepositions.

7. A noun or pronoun is in the *nominative* case, when it names a person or thing in a state of *being* or *doing* any

thing, at any period; as, *Charles is ill. He has written a letter. The ship will sail to-morrow.* In these instances, *Charles*, *he*, and the *ship*, are each in the *nominative* case: the noun *Charles* denotes a person in a state of *being ill;* the pronoun *he*, refers to a person that has performed some action; namely, that of *writing;* and the noun *ship*, describes an inanimate object about to do some action; namely, that of *sailing.* Therefore, the person or thing that *is* or that *acts*, is in the nominative case; and as *being* and *action* are expressed by *verbs*, the nominative is said to *govern* the verb, or, is the *subject*, or *agent* of the verb.

8. A noun or pronoun is in the *genitive* or *possessive* case, when it describes any person or thing as being the *possessor* of any other person or thing; as *Maria's bonnet. His hat.* Also, when it denotes any person or thing to which another noun is related; as, *The laws of the country. The Queen of England.* In these examples, the noun *Maria*, and the pronoun *his*, are in the *genitive* case, the former being the *possessor* of the noun *bonnet;* the latter, of the noun *hat. Country* and *England* are also in the *genitive* case, because the noun *laws* relates to the first, and the noun *Queen*, to the second. We here see that there are two ways of forming the genitive case, namely, either by an *s* with the apostrophe after the noun, or by the preposition *of*, before it; and this is the only preposition used with the genitive case.

9. Those persons or things to which any thing is *given*, *sent*, *directed*, or *intended for*, are in the *dative* case; as, *I gave the book to Horace. He sent James a present. Frederick bought the ring for Charlotte. They wrote him a letter.* In these examples we see that the nouns *Horace*, *James*, and *Charlotte*, and the person represented by the pronoun *him*, have something *given*, *sent*, *directed to*, or *intended for* them; and that they are the *receivers* of the things so *given*, *sent*, &c. Nouns and pronouns in this case are governed by the preposition *to*, or *for*. The preposition is sometimes expressed, and when not, it is understood.

Observe that a noun or pronoun in the dative case, is not

the *immediate* or *direct* object of the verb; that is, the action of the verb does not fall upon it: the thing given, sent, &c., is the immediate object of the verb, and is in the *accusative* case, as we shall now see: the *dative* is governed, not by the verb, but by the preposition expressed or understood.

10. A noun or pronoun is in the *accusative* or *objective* case, when it represents the person or thing affected by some action done to it; that is, when it denotes the person or thing on which the action of the verb falls: in other words, it is the *object* of the verb; as, *James beat Henry. You cut the paper.* In the first example, *Henry*, is the object *beaten*, the energy of the verb *to beat* falls on him. In the second, the *paper* is the object of the verb *to cut;* the action of that verb falls on it, and it is affected by that action. All nouns and pronouns in this case are the *direct* or *immediate* object of the verb, as before stated.

11. A noun or pronoun is in the *ablative* case, when it denotes a person or thing in the act of having something *taken away*, *divided*, or *separated* from it; as, *They brought the book from the library. He received a letter from his father.* Here the nouns *library* and *father*, are in the *ablative* case, each having something *taken* or *separated* from it. The person or thing also that is *instrumental* in the doing of an action, or that denotes the *means* by which a thing is done, is likewise in the *ablative* case; as, *The box was sent by the servant:* here the *servant* is *instrumental* in carrying the box, and is therefore in the *ablative* case.—*He was killed by an arrow:*—here, *arrow* is in the *ablative* case also, because it is the noun denoting the means by which the act of killing was effected. There are several prepositions employed with this case, such as, *by*, *from*, *with*, *on*, *in*, *through*, and some others.

12. In addition to these five cases, we see in Latin grammars another case called the *vocative;* Example, *Domine;* O Lord. Vocative means an *invoking*, or *calling upon*. But however indispensable this case may be in Latin, in which nouns have a peculiar inflection for it, it appears useless in those languages in which the nouns have no inflec-

tions: since a noun in the *vocative* case is the *nominative* in a different position with regard to the verb; for when we say, *O Lord*, we leave out some words that are wanting to make the sense complete; thus, *O* thou who art the *Lord:* and here we see that the noun *Lord*, is the nominative coming *after* the verb *art*, and *who*, the relative pronoun, is the nominative before the verb.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

13. Nouns are declined with or without the definite or the indefinite article, as the occasion may require, in the following manner:

	Mas. Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	The man	the men
Gen.	of the man, *or*, the man's	of the men, *or*, the men's
Dat.	to the man	to the men
Acc.	the man	the men
Abl.	by, &c., the man	by, &c., the men

	Fem. Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	the woman	the women
Gen.	of the woman, *or*, the woman's	of the women, *or*, the women's
Dat.	to the woman	to the women
Acc.	the woman	the women
Abl.	by, &c., the woman	by, &c., the women

	Neut Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	the book	the books
Gen.	of the book, *or*, the book's	of the books, *or*, the books'
Dat.	to the book	to the books
Acc.	the book	the books
Abl.	by, &c., the book	by, &c., the books

LECTURE VII.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADJECTIVES.

1. The student is referred to Lecture III., Par. 4, for the definition of this part of speech. Adjectives in English do

not vary on account of number, gender, or case: we have however to notice some very important changes in adjectives, namely,—

THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

2. As adjectives express some quality or property of the noun, this quality or property, when compared with that of another noun, may be *equal*, *superior*, or *inferior* to it: for instance, *Your cloth is fine; his is finer; but mine is the finest of the three.* In this example, are distinguished *three* different degrees in the quality of the cloth: these are called *degrees of comparison*, and are distinguished by the names *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

3. The *positive* expresses a quality without any reference or comparison, as in the foregoing example, *Your cloth is fine:* but when we say, *his is finer*, a *comparison* is made between the two; and in the conclusion, *mine is the finest of the three*, the quality of the cloth is placed in the *highest degree* of fineness, as regards the three qualities.

In comparing *two* objects, the *comparative* degree is used; but in comparing more than two, the *superlative* is required: we therefore say, *This is the* larger, *or the* smaller, *or the* better *of the two: but, The* largest, *or the* smallest, *or the* best *of the three.*

4. In the *comparative*, there are three states to be observed, namely, that of *equality*, that of *superiority*, and that of *inferiority;* as, *He is as learned as his brother; He is more learned than his brother; He is less learned than his brother.*

5. The *superlative* expresses the quality in the *highest* or *lowest* degree. It is of two kinds, the one *relative*, the other *absolute*. The superlative *relative*, denotes the quality of an object with reference to that of another object; as, *Mine is the largest house in this street:* here we see that the superlative *largest* refers to the largest house with reference to the houses in the street alluded to. But the superlative *absolute*, expresses the quality of an object without reference

to any other particular object; as, *He is a most benevolent man. It is a very worthless animal.*

FORMATION OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

6. The *comparative of equality*, is formed by placing the word *as* before and after the adjective; as, *This is as wide as that.* In the negative sense, *so*, is put before, and *as*, after, the adjective; as, *This is not so wide as that.*

The *comparative of superiority*, mostly ends in *er;* or is preceded by *more*, and followed by *than;* as, *This is easier*, or *more easy than that.* In the negative sense, the addition of the negative particle *not*, is required in this, and in all the following comparisons; as, *This is not easier to do, or not more easy to do than that.*

The *comparative of inferiority*, is formed by putting the word *less*, before, and *than*, after the adjective; as *This is less easy to do than that.*

7. The *superlative relative*, generally ends in *st*, or is preceded by *most;* as, *This is the handsomest*, or, *the most handsome of the three.*

The *superlative absolute*, is preceded by *very* or *most;* as, *He is a very*, or *most attentive pupil.*

GENERAL RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES, BY THEIR TERMINATIONS.

8. Adjectives of *one* syllable, which in the positive end in a consonant, mostly form their comparatives by the addition of *er*, and their superlatives by *est :* those that end in *e*, take *r*, only for the comparative, and *st*, for the superlative: Ex.

Positive.	*Compar.*	*Superl.*	*Positive.*	*Compar.*	*Superl.*
Black	blacker	blackest	fine	finer	finest
high	higher	highest	large	larger	largest
rough	rougher	roughest	wise	wiser	wisest

9. Adjectives that end in *d*, *g*, *n*, or *t*, preceded by a *single vowel*, require these final consonants to be doubled in

forming their comparatives and superlatives; but not so when preceded by a *consonant*, or more than one vowel: Ex.

Positive.	*Compar.*	*Superl.*	*Positive.*	*Compar.*	*Superl.*
Red	redder	reddest	mild	milder	mildest
big	bigger	biggest	short	shorter	shortest
thin	thinner	thinnest	clean	cleaner	cleanest
hot	hotter	hottest	sweet	sweeter	sweetest

10. Adjectives of *two* syllables ending in *y*, preceded by a *consonant*, change the *y* into *ie*, to form their comparatives and superlatives: Ex.

Positive.	*Compar.*	*Superl.*	*Positive.*	*Compar.*	*Superl.*
Clumsy	clumsier	clumsiest	lazy	lazier	laziest
easy	easier	easiest	lofty	loftier	loftiest

11. The following adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives in a very irregular manner: Ex.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
much *or* many	more	most
far	farther	furthest
fore	former	foremost
old	elder / older	eldest (applied to persons) / oldest (applied to persons and things)
late	later	latest, *or* last
near	nearer	nearest, *or* next

Note. There are several adjectives, the nature of which, strictly speaking, does not admit of comparison; such are, *just*, *true*, *full*, *empty*, &c.

12. When the adjective is of *one* syllable only, the comparative and superlative degrees are most generally formed by the terminations, according to the foregoing rules. When the adjective is of *two* syllables, it is a matter of taste, whether the degrees be formed by the terminations, or by prefixing the words *more* and *most*. But when the adjective is of *more than two* syllables, the degrees must be formed by *more* and *most*.

13. The quality expressed by some adjectives is some-

times reduced *below* the positive, by the addition of the termination *ish*; as *white*, *whitish*; *black*, *blackish*: which mean, partaking of the nature of *white* and *black*.

14. The comparatives of equality, superiority, and inferiority, and the superlative relative, may be modified by means of adverbs; thus, *equally as good*; *quite as large*; *much milder*; *much more benevolent*; *considerably smaller*; *still less active*; *by far the largest*, &c.

NUMERICAL ADJECTIVES.

15. This class of adjectives is divided into two kinds, namely, *cardinal* and *ordinal* numbers.

Cardinal numbers simply denote the number of objects to which they allude; as, *one man*, *two books*, *three pens*, *twenty letters*, &c.

Ordinal numbers mark the order and rank of persons and things; as, the *first man*, *the second battalion*, *the third volume*, *the sixteenth day*, &c.

Numerical adjectives are subject to no kind of variation.

LECTURE VIII.

ETYMOLOGY OF PRONOUNS.

1. For the definition of this part of speech, see Lecture III. Par. 5. Pronouns are generally classed under six heads, viz.: *personal*, *possessive*, *demonstrative*, *relative*, *interrogative*, and *indeterminate*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

2. These are employed with reference to persons, whose places they supply. There are three persons, namely, the *first*, or the person that *speaks*; the *second*, or the person *spoken to*; and the *third*, or the person *spoken of*; as, *I wrote the letter*, *you signed it*, *and he delivered it*. Here the pronoun that stands in the place of the person that *speaks*, is *I*; that which stands in the place of the person *spoken to*, is *you*; and that which stands in the place of the person *spoken of*, is *he*.

3. Personal pronouns are subject to a variation of *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*, as seen in the following

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Singular Number.	*Nom.*	*Gen.*	*Dat.*	*Acc.*	*Abl.*
First person, common gender....	I	of me	to me	me	by me
Second person, common gender..	thou	of thee	to thee	thee	by thee
Third person { masculine gender	he	of him	to him	him	by him
Third person { feminine gender.	she	of her	to her	her	by her
Third person { neuter gender....	it	of it	to it	it	by it
Plural Number.					
First person, common gender....	we	of us	to us	us	by us
Second person, common gender..	you	of you	to you	you	by you
Third person, common gender...	they	of them	to them	them	by them

4. Formerly, *ye*, used to be employed in the nominative, in the second person plural; and *you* in the governed cases. *Ye* is still used for the nominative in scripture and in poetry. Custom, however, has now generally laid aside the use of *ye*, in conversation and in writing, as also the second person singular, *thou* and *thee;* instead of which *you* is employed in all the cases.

5. The compound pronouns, *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, are frequently added to personal pronouns, with which they correspond in person, number, gender, and case. Their use is to allude more emphatically to the persons or things, which they stand in the place of. They are sometimes also used by themselves, and sometimes after a noun; as, *I myself will go. Even yourself knew it. They themselves acknowledged the deed. We addressed the king himself.*

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

6. These denote the *possession* of any object, by the persons or things to which they refer. They are of two kinds; first, those which *precede* the noun possessed, which are as follows:

	Sing.	*Plur.*
First person, common gender . .	My	our
Second person, common gender .	thy	your
Third person { masculine . .	his	their
Third person { feminine . . .	her	their
Third person { neuter	its	their

And secondly, those which *follow* the noun possessed, or that are used in reference to some noun understood, and which are as follows:—

	Sing.	*Plur.*
First person, common gender . .	Mine	ours
Second person, common gender .	thine	yours
Third person { masculine . . .	his	theirs
Third person { feminine . . .	hers	theirs
Third person { neuter	its	theirs

Examples of the first class: *My book, thy pens, his brother, her son, its wings, our father, your houses, their fortune.* Examples of the second class: *A servant of mine. That deed of thine. It is not his that I refer to, but hers. It belongs to a servant of yours. This is theirs and not ours.*

7. Possessive pronouns do not vary their forms on account of case; but they admit the same prepositions, in the governed cases, as personal pronouns do; as, *Of my book; to his house; from our garden; of mine; to yours; by theirs*, &c.

8. The word *own* is sometimes emphatically used with personal pronouns; as, *That is my* own *idea. Is that his* own *coach? There is no home like our* own.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

9. These point out, or particularly demonstrate, the objects to which they refer, or which they stand in the place of. They are *this*, which refers to an object *near* to the speaker; and *that*, which refers to an object *distant* from the speaker. *These* is the plural of *this;* and *those* is the plural of *that.* They are not subject to any variation of *person*, *gender*, or *case.* Ex. This *man and* these *boys whom you see here.* That *woman and* those *girls yonder. Carry* this *letter to* that *house. I have extracted* these *verses from* those *books which you lent me.* That *is correct, but* this *is not.*

10. When demonstrative pronouns refer to time, *this* is applied to the *present*, and *that* to the *past* and *future;* as,

This *is the age of inventions. I recollect* that *day very well.* That *period is yet to come.*

11. The words *former* and *latter*, are frequently employed instead of *this* and *that*, to avoid the repetition of some nouns going before; as, *I have seen the* man *and the* woman; *the* former *is recovered; the* latter *not so. Prefer* virtue *to* vice; *the* former *will render you happy; the* latter *miserable.*

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

12. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *that*, and are employed in relation to some person or thing in a sentence; which person or thing so referred to, is called the *antecedent;* as, *The* man who *spoke to you. The* letters to which *they refer. The* house that *he built.* In these examples, *who*, *which*, and *that*, relate to the antecedents, *man*, *letters*, *house. Who* refers to persons only; *that* may refer to persons or to things; and *which*, to things, or to inferior animals; but seldom to persons, except in asking questions. *Who* and *that* may be employed with reference to the three persons, singular and plural; and *which* should only be used in reference to a noun in the third person singular or plural. *Who* and *which* may be employed in all the cases; but *that* in the nominative only. *Who* becomes *whom* in the governed cases, and *which* never alters; as, *It is I* who, *or* that *did it. He* who, *or* that *came first. The man* who, *or* that *was killed. The horse* which *he bought. The person* of whom *you speak. The chapter* to which *he refers.* Which *of those men do you mean?*

13. *Whose*, which refers to persons only, partakes of the nature of both a relative and a possessive pronoun. As a relative, it relates to an antecedent; and as a possessive pronoun, it refers to the object possessed, and is employed in all the cases; as, *The* authors whose works *I have read. I speak of the* gentlemen to whose houses *I have been.*

Instead of *whose*, we must use *of which*, in reference to things; as, *It is an* evil of which *the* cause *is unknown. I speak of those* matters *the* evidence of which *is apparent.*

14. *What* is equal in meaning to *that which*, or *the thing which;* as, *This is* what *you ought to do. Remember* what *I say. I know* what *you refer to. I have brought* what *you required.*

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

15. Are so called from their being used in asking questions. They are *who*, *which*, and *what*. *Who* refers to persons only, and *which* and *what* may refer to persons or things. They are subject to no other variations than relative pronouns are. Ex. *Who is he? Which man? What is that? Of whom are you speaking? To which do you refer? By what means was it done? Whose book is this? To whose house did you go?*

INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS.

16. These are so called because they are employed in an indefinite manner with regard to the objects to which they refer: they do not generally individualize them as other pronouns do. Some of the words used as indeterminate pronouns are adjectives when employed together with nouns. In the sentence, Some *devote their leisure to study, and* many *to amusement;* the words *some* and *many* are employed as indeterminate pronouns; but as adjectives in the following sentences:—Some men *are studious.* Many persons *were present.*

The following are the words commonly used as indeterminate pronouns.

One, *some*, *any*, *each*, *another*, *both*, *either*, *few*, *all*, *such*, *several*, *many*, *none*, *nothing*, *neither*, *whoever* or *whosoever*, *whichever* or *whichsoever*, *whatever* or *whatsoever*, and a few more. They are all of the third person: their signification points out their number. They refer to persons or things, except *whoever* or *whosoever*, which refers to persons only; and they are subject to no variation on account of case, except *one*, *another*, which become *one's*, *another's*, in the possessive case; and *whoever*, which is *whomsoever* in the governed cases, as likewise sometimes *whosesoever* in the

possessive case. *Whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever*, seem now to be more generally used than *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, and *whatsoever*. Examples:—Some *of these are good, and a* few *are bad.* Either *will do.* Neither *has done his duty.* Whoever *should come.* *Of* whomsoever *you may speak.* *Do* whatever *you please.* *Do not interfere with* another's *business*, &c.

Whatsoever and *whichsoever* are sometimes divided by the interposition of some word to which they refer; as, What *plan* soever *he may adopt*, &c.

LECTURE IX.

ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

1. The student is referred to Lecture III. Par. 6, for the definition of this part of speech. We have now to observe that there are four kinds of verbs, distinguished by the names, *auxiliary*, *active*, *passive*, and *neuter*.

2. The chief auxiliary verbs are *to have*, and *to be*. They are called auxiliaries, from their peculiar office in assisting to form what are called the compound tenses, or times of all verbs. Besides these two auxiliary verbs, there are in English certain words, which may also be termed auxiliaries, because they are used as signs of certain modes and tenses: they are *let*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *might*, *could*, *would* and *should*. Their use will be explained hereafter. (See the conjugation of the auxiliary verbs *to have* and *to be*, Lecture XI.)

3. A verb is called *active*, when the action described by it passes from one person or thing to another object; for which reason it is also called *transitive;* thus, *to strike*, *to hate*, *to love*, *to buy*, *to sell*, *to see*, *to write*, &c., are *active* verbs; because the action described by either of them, originating in the person or thing that *acts*, which is called the *nominative*, or *agent* of the verb, may pass over to a person or thing acted upon, called the *object* of the verb; for instance, *William struck Henry; I hate vice:*—in which

examples, *William* and *I* are the *agents* or *actors*, or *nominatives* of the verbs *to strike* and *to hate;* and, *Henry* and *vice*, being the person and thing *acted upon*, are called the *objects* of the verbs.

4. An *active* verb becomes *reflective*, when its agent and object are both the same person or thing. In the examples *I see myself; He knows himself*, it is observed that the action described by each verb, does not affect any object besides its agent. When there is a reciprocity of action between two or more persons or things, the verb denoting the action, is called a *reciprocal* verb; for instance, *We love one another. They hate each other.* (See the formation of reflective verbs, Lecture XI.)

5. A verb is called *passive*, when it describes the *suffering*, or the *enduring* of an action by a person or thing that receives the action from another person or thing. All *active* verbs, and a few *neuter* verbs, become *passive*, when employed together with the auxiliary *to be;* thus, *James was illtreated by Thomas. Vice is detested by the virtuous;* and here we see that the verbs *to be illtreated*, and *to be detested*, express a *passiveness*, or a suffering, on account of which, they are called *passive* verbs. In the first example, although *James* is the *sufferer*, he is not the *object* of the verb *to be illtreated:* he is the *nominative*, and is described to be in a state of *suffering* from an action. *Thomas* is not the *nominative* of the verb, because he is governed by the preposition *by*, which denotes *instrumentality;* he is therefore in the *ablative* case. The same observations apply to the second example.

Although there is in reality no passive *form* of the verb in English, as is the case in Latin, yet there is a passive *voice*, which for the sake of uniformity has been called the passive *verb*. (See the manner of conjugating passive verbs, Lecture XI.)

6. A *neuter* verb is neither *transitive* nor *passive*. By a neuter verb something is represented as *existing* or *being*, denoting only the *state* of the agent of the verb: the meaning of the verb does not pass over to any other person or

thing, for which reason neuter verbs have been called *intransitive*, or *inactive*. *To live*, *to sleep*, *to sit*, *to walk*, are neuter verbs, because they merely denote the state in which their agents exist: *to be*, besides being an *auxiliary*, is likewise a *neuter* verb. To distinguish a *neuter* from an *active* verb, we have only to put a noun after the verb; and if it make sense with the noun, it is *active;* if it should not, it is *neuter*.

Although a neuter verb is not called *active*, still there are some neuter verbs that denote a visible action; such as *to go*, *to come*, *to run*, and many others; but the actions denoted by them are not *transitive;* they remain with their agents. This kind of verbs has been distinguished by the name of *active intransitive*.

There are also some verbs, which, according to the sense in which they are taken, are sometimes *active*, and sometimes *neuter;* thus, *to run*, is active, when we say, *To run a race;* because it has an *objective* case after it, which is *race;* but it is *neuter* when we say, *He runs fast;* because the act of *running* remains with the agent, and admits of no object after it.

7. Verbs are again subdivided into *regular*, *irregular*, *impersonal*, and *defective*.

8. *Regular* verbs are all those which are conjugated throughout every mode and tense conformably to a model, which is considered a standard for all regular verbs. All English verbs are regular, in which the *past* tense of the indicative mode, and the *past participle*, end in *ed*. In Lec. XI., the verb *to form* is given as a model for conjugating all the regular verbs in the English language.

9. *Irregular* verbs are all those that deviate in some instances from the general standard in their conjugations. In Lec. XI., Par. 5. is given a list of all the *irregular* verbs in the English language, pointing out their irregularities.

10. *Impersonal* verbs are those which are used in the *third* person only; thus, *to rain*, *to thunder*, *to dawn*, *to be necessary*, and many others, are impersonal verbs. They are so called, because in their employment there appears no

visible person or thing acting as their nominative; for when we say, *it rains*, *it thunders*, &c., we do not express *who*, or *what* it is that *rains* or *thunders*, &c. The pronoun *it*, which represents the nominative of impersonal verbs, stands in the place of a variety of circumstances which give rise to the action of the verbs: thus, *it rains*, means that the *moisture* of the clouds *descends* in rain; *it thunders*, means that the *ignition* of the electric fluid contained in the clouds *causes a noise* called thunder; *it dawns*, means that *day-light makes* its appearance; *it is necessary* that we should go, means that *circumstances render* it necessary that we should go, and so forth.

11. *Defective* verbs are those which are used only in certain tenses, because their peculiar meaning does not admit them to be employed in every tense: *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *ought*, and *must*, are all defective verbs: some of them are also employed as *signs* of the subjunctive, and some as *signs* of the indicative mode: *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, are employed as signs of the subjunctive: *shall* and *will* as signs of the future tense of the indicative; *can*, *ought*, and *must*, are used before infinitives, as, *I can* or *must go; I ought to write to them*. After *can* and *must*, the *to* is suppressed before an infinitive. *Can* implies *power; must* and *ought* denote *duty* or *necessity*. *Quoth* is another defective verb, only used in the *past* tense; as, *Quoth I; quoth he;* which mean *Said I; said he*. See further on defective verbs, Lecture X. Par. 10.

12. We have now four more things connected with verbs to consider, namely, the *conjugation*, the *modes*, the *tenses* or *times*, and the *number and person*.

THE CONJUGATION.

13. The *conjugation* of a verb is the uniting, or exhibiting under one view, all the various changes which the verb undergoes in the several modes, tenses, and persons. The modes and tenses are sometimes indicated by signs, and sometimes by inflections, or by a change of orthography in

the verb; and the number and person by inflections, except in the imperative, which sometimes admits signs and sometimes inflections.

THE MODES.

14. *Mode* or *mood*, which signifies *manner*, expresses the intention of the mind concerning the manner in which we use the verb. There are four modes *, namely, the *infinitive*, the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, and the *imperative*.

15. The *infinitive*, which is the root of the verb, represents the action, or the state of being, in a general and unlimited manner, without any reference to time or person; thus, *to go*, *to speak*, *to write*, *to be*, do not denote *when*, or in what *manner* the action or state of being represented by these verbs, takes place; nor who or what acts as their agents; to determine which, a verb in the infinitive must

* Reasons for omitting the *Potential* Mode:—The auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, which are all *defective* verbs, are sometimes employed as *signs*, and sometimes as principal verbs, and in either case, *may* expresses *liberty*; *might* and *could*, *power*; *would*, *inclination* or *will*; and *should*, *duty*; without any reference to time, which is generally denoted by the tendency of the sentence, or by some adverb expressed or understood. When used as principal verbs, (though defective,) and not depending on any other verb for their meaning, there appears no necessity for assigning a separate mode for them:—for instance, I *may* do what I like, now or at any time. He *might* or *could* have written yesterday. They *would* not come on any account. You *should* always speak courteously. In these sentences, *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, are not dependent on the verbs that follow them for their own meaning, since they themselves declare their own import of liberty, power, will, and duty to *do*, to *write*, to *come*, and to *speak*; and these sentences therefore mean; I *am able*, or *have* the *power* to do, &c. He *was able*, or *had* the *power* to write. They *were* not *willing* to come, &c. It *is* your *duty* to speak courteously. But when employed merely as *signs* to verbs that depend for their meaning on some other verb in the sentence, they are then no longer independent verbs, but signs of the *subjunctive* mode, as in the following examples: I gave you the book in order *that* you *may* or *might make* good use of it. *Could* I have but *known* his intention, I never would have trusted him. I *would read* if I had time. *If* he *should arrive* to-day or to-morrow, I will call on him.

have an *antecedent* verb, or, as it is sometimes called, a governing verb; as, *He promises to go. They intended to speak. He will endeavour to write. He strives to be good.*

16. The *indicative* mode *declares*, *indicates*, or *points out* the action or state of being in a positive and unconditional manner, and depends on no other verb to determine its signification; as, *He goes. They spoke. He will write. He is good.*

17. The *subjunctive* mode makes no complete sense of itself alone, as the indicative does; but it represents an action under some condition or subordination, as *fear*, *doubt*, *wish*, *hope*, *promise*, *supposition*, and such like. A verb in the subjunctive mode, therefore, depends on some antecedent verb to render its signification complete; as, *I fear that he may come. I doubted that you would go. I will stay provided you desire me. If I had books I would read. I wish it may rain. I hope she may come.*

All conditional phrases suppose two propositions, the one *principal*, the other *subordinate;* the latter is preceded by a conjunction, and is dependent on the antecedent or principal verb. The conjunction may, by way of ellipsis, be suppressed. In the natural construction of language, the principal proposition precedes the subordinate; but they may frequently exchange situations as taste may dictate; as, *Provided you desire me, I will stay.* In the following example the conjunction is suppressed; *I hope he may succeed.*

18. The *imperative* mode is used for *commanding*, *exhorting*, or *forbidding*; as, *Go quickly. Pray tell me. Do not stir.*

THE TENSES.

19. *Tense* signifies *time*, and as all actions and states of existence must necessarily be limited to time, they are said to be either in the *present*, *past*, or *future tense*. These are the three grand divisions of time, and which have been subdivided by grammarians in order to denote the time of being and action with greater minuteness and precision.

These subdivisions of time are what are called the *compound tenses.* They are so called, because, to express them, more than one word is required in English and most other languages. Verbs in the Latin language have so many inflections, that each of the compound tenses is expressed by a single word; and therefore instead of being called compound tenses, they have each a distinct name. The following is the order of the Latin tenses, with their corresponding English translation.

Present . . .	*amo.*	Present	*I love.*
Preterimperfect .	*amabam.*	Past	*I loved,* or *did love.*
Preterperfect .	*amavi.*	Compound Present	*I have loved.*
Preterpluperfect	*amaveram.*	Compound Past .	*I had loved.*
Future . . .	*amabo.*	Future	*I shall* or *will love.*

There is in the English, and in many other languages, a *compound future* tense, which the Latin has not; and is by some called the *future perfect;* as, *I shall* or *will have loved.*

PERSON AND NUMBER.

20. Every verb must have at least one noun or pronoun for its nominative; for no action can be done without an agent to perform it; and no state of being can be expressed, without expressing *who* or *what* it is that exists. Sometimes, however, the nominative is suppressed, but then it is always understood.

There are three persons, and two numbers. *I read, thou singest, he speaks,* are the first, second, and third persons, singular number; and *we read, you sing, they speak,* are the first, second, and third persons, plural number.

LECTURE X.

USE AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE TENSES.

Indicative Mode.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. This tense denotes what exists permanently, the *present state of things,* and what is being done or taking place

at the present time; as, *The Moon* accompanies *the Earth, and both* revolve *round the Sun, which* is *stationary. The government of England* is *of a mixed form; that of the United States of America* is *republican. I* am *well. He* writes *and they* read.

It expresses the existing habits, customs, and professions of individuals and nations, &c.; as, *He* rises *early every morning. She* is *always industrious. The English* cultivate *science and the arts to a high degree. He* is *a colonel.*

In speaking of an author no longer existing, but whose writings are still extant, this tense is also used; as, *Shakspear* is *the prince of English poets.*

The present tense is often used to express a future movement, to the performance of which the mind is already made up; and also to denote that we fully expect that something will take place; as, *We* start *to-morrow; and they* leave *here on Monday next. As soon as he* comes *I will go. I shall see him when he* returns.

This tense is frequently formed with the help of the auxiliary *do*, which adds a certain degree of energy to the affirmation; as, *I* do think *that he will do it. She* does dance *very gracefully.* In the first example, *do* is twice used, but with different meanings: the first *do* is the auxiliary that adds energy to the meaning of the verb *think;* but the second *do* is a principal verb, a verb active, specifying the action of the nominative *he.*

PRETERIMPERFECT, OR PAST TENSE.

2. This tense represents an action, or a state of existence as past and completed, at a time of which the period in which we are speaking forms no part; as, *I* wrote *my letter last night. He* arrived *in January and* returned *in May last.*

It also specifies an action, or a state of being, as having occurred or existed coexistently with another; as, *I* was *at breakfast when he came. They* danced *while we played.*

This tense is properly used in the historical style; for

which reason it has, by some, been called the *historical past tense;* as, *The destruction of Troy* occurred 1183 *years before the Christian era. Queen Victoria* succeeded *to the throne in* 1837.

It is also used to describe all former customs, habits, qualities, professions, &c., of individuals and nations no longer existing, as well as those which formerly belonged to individuals, nations, &c., still existing; as, *The Egyptians* cultivated *the sciences, and made* sacrifices *to their gods. Cæsar* was *a great general. I* studied *painting when I* resided *in Italy. This youth* was *formerly very industrious.*

This tense may have also the form already noticed in the present tense, and with the same effect, by the assistance of the auxiliary *do*, employing it in its past tense; as, *He* did *go. They* did *see him.*

PRETERPERFECT, OR COMPOUND OF THE PRESENT TENSE.

3. This tense is employed to denote a past action, but performed at a period, of which the present forms a part; as, *I* have written *to him this week.* Here we see that the act of writing is passed; but the period in which it was performed, namely, the week, still exists. The *preterperfect*, therefore, denotes a past occurrence that has taken place during the *present day, week, month, year, century*, or during any period which is not entirely elapsed; as, *I* have *not* seen *him to-day, nor during the whole of this week. Many works of merit* have been written *in this century. They* have made *several discoveries during their present voyage.* It likewise denotes an action just finished; as, *The boy* is come, *but* has *not* brought *his books.*

It expresses, also, an action performed at a past time, the effects of which action are still felt at the present time; as, *They* have acted *imprudently, and they now suffer for it.*

PRETERPLUPERFECT, OR COMPOUND OF THE PAST TENSE.

4. This tense points out the occurrence of one circumstance, prior to the taking place of another; as, *I* had

finished *writing* before he *arrived*. *He came just as we* had finished *dinner*.

FUTURE TENSE.

5. This tense indicates that something will exist, or take place, at some definite or indefinite period which is yet to come; as, *I* shall go *to-morrow*. *He* will receive *the money*. *The virtuous* shall be *rewarded*.

FUTURE PERFECT, OR COMPOUND OF THE FUTURE TENSE.

6. This tense denotes that an action, or an event, will have taken place, at, or before the period of another future action or event; as, *I* shall have finished *writing before the departure of the mail*. *They* will have arrived *by*, or *at the end of the week*.

GENERAL RULES FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE SIGNS *SHALL* AND *WILL* OF THE FUTURE TENSE.

7. In affirmative sentences, *shall*, in the *first* person (singular or plural) simply foretels that an event will occur; as, I shall *write to him to-morrow*. We shall *leave here next week*.

In the *second* and *third* persons, *shall* denotes *promise*, *command*, or *menace;* as, Thou shalt, *or* you shall *be rewarded for your labour*. He *or* they shall *quit instantly*. You shall *be punished for your disobedience*.

Will, in the *first* person, denotes *promise*, *resolution*, and *menace;* as, I will *be cautious*. We will *go at all hazards*. I will *punish you*.

In the *second* and *third* persons, *will* simply foretels; as, You *or* he will *soon arrive*. She *or* they *will expect you*.

In interrogative sentences, however, the reverse frequently takes place when *shall* and *will* in the affirmative denote *promise*, *command*, or *menace;* as, Will you be *rewarded for your labour?* Will they *quit?* Will you *be punished for your disobedience?* Shall I *be cautious?* Shall we *go?* Shall I *punish you?*

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

8. A verb in the subjunctive mode, in its *simple* form, may have reference to a *present*, or a *future time;* but, in its *compound* form, it has reference only to a *past* time. The *signs* of the subjunctive mode are, *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, which are sometimes expressed and sometimes understood. Ex.:—

PRESENT AND FUTURE TENSES.—*I fear that he* may say *so* now, *or* to-morrow. *I fear* that he might be *induced to go* now, *or* hereafter. *If he* could *but* see *him* to-day, *or* to-morrow, he would speak *to him*. *They* would come now, *or* to-morrow, *if they were allowed*.

PAST TENSE.—*He* may have written *yesterday, provided he received your letter in time*. *He* might, could, *or* would have written yesterday, *had he been in time for the post*. *If he* should have written yesterday, *we will receive his letter*.

9. As signs of the subjunctive, *may* denotes probability; *might*, moral power, permission or probability; *could*, physical power; *would*, will or inclination; and *should*, means *in case that*.

10. These little words, *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, are sometimes employed, not as *signs* of the subjunctive, but as principal verbs, before an infinitive; and when so employed, *may* and *might* denote moral power, or liberty; *could*, physical power; *would*, will or inclination; and *should*, duty or obligation; as, *I* may go, *since he permits me to go*. *You* might *as well try*. *I* would *not go on any account*. *I* could go, *if I liked to go*. *He* would write, *although you wished him not to write*. *You* should *always* do *your duty*. *Might* has the same analogy to *may* as *could* has to *can*, *would* to *will*, and *should* to *shall*. Although *might*, *could*, *would* and *should*, have been considered the *past* tenses of the defective verbs *may*, *can*, *will*, and *shall*, it would appear that they sometimes have reference to a *present*, or a *future* occurrence as well as to a *past;* as, *I might*, or *could*, *go now, or to-morrow*. *I cannot write as well now as I could formerly*. *I would as willingly go now*

as I would to-morrow. He would not speak to me yesterday. I would just as well write now as I would to-morrow. You should either go now or to-morrow.

In their *compound* form they always denote a *past* occurrence; as, *I might, could, would,* or *should, have gone yesterday.*

IMPERATIVE MODE.

11. In this mode, the act of commanding or entreating, can only have reference to the *present* time; and the act commanded or entreated to be done, whether it take place the very moment after it is desired to be done, or at any indefinite period from it, must be performed subsequently to the commanding or entreating, and consequently at a *future* time. The phrase, *Bring me the book to-day,* or *to-morrow,* means, I command, or entreat you *now,* to bring me the book *to-day,* or *to-morrow.*

PARTICIPLES.

12. Participles are so called from their partaking of the nature of *verbs, adjectives,* and *nouns.* They are originally a part of the verb. There are two participles, the one called *present* or *active;* the other, *past* or *passive.*

The participle *present,* in its capacity as a verb, denotes *action,* or *state of being;* and is generally preceded by some other verb, to denote the *time* of action or being; as, *He is, was, has been,* or *will be, writing* or *standing.*

The participle *past,* as relates to verbs, is that part of the verb, which, when joined to the auxiliary *to have,* forms the *compound tenses.* It is called the participle passive, when joined to the auxiliary *to be;* forming together, the *passive voice.* Ex.: *I have walked. We had spoken. They will have dined. I am loved. He will be punished. They may have been sold.*

13. We have now to consider how participles are employed in the capacity of *nouns* and *adjectives.*

Whenever the participle *present* is preceded by an article, a possessive, or a demonstrative pronoun; or, when used

by itself without a verb, it assumes the character of a noun; as, *The* roaring *of the lions. The motive of his* coming. *That continual* hammering. Reading *instructs.* Walking *is conducive to health.*

When the participle *present* is employed before nouns, expressing some *quality* or *property* belonging to them, it assumes the character of an *adjective;* as, *A* charming *woman. The* refreshing *breeze. The* singing *birds.*

When the participle *past* does not denote action, but expresses a state of being descriptive of, or characterising some noun, it is employed in the capacity of an adjective; as, *A* married *woman. The* enamoured *youth. The* stolen *goods.*

14. There is what is called the *progressive* form of the verb, and is employed in every mode and tense, denoting in a forcible manner the action or state of being to be actually in progression at the time expressed by the verb. This state of the verb is formed by putting the *participle present* of the verb denoting the action or state, after every person and tense of the verb *to be;* thus, *I* am writing *a letter. He* was standing at *the door. We* shall be travelling *to-morrow. If he* should be studying *his lesson, do not interrupt him. It is delightful* to be walking *out in this fine weather.*

This form of the verb is likewise used to represent an action in the progressive state, though perhaps not actually occurring at the precise time denoted by the verb; as, *I* am writing *a work. He* was preparing *his lessons the whole* of the week.

LECTURE XI.

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. Previous to the conjugation of *regular* and other verbs, that of *to have*, in its capacity as an auxiliary verb, will be exhibited; as it is necessary it should be learned first, from its peculiar office, in assisting to form the compound tenses of all other verbs. The verb *to be* will follow, not only on account of its constant use as a verb denoting the

istence, or state of being of objects; as, *He is ill. They e writing;* but also on account of its being frequently ought into use to form the *passive* voice; as, *To be loved. e is loved by him.* Both *to have* and *to be* are irregular in eir conjugations.

2. The compound tenses of *to have* will likewise be ven with its conjugation; but observe, that they are not ployed with it in its capacity of an auxiliary; they are ly used with it when it is an *active* verb, denoting the *ssession* of any thing; as, *I have had books. They may ve had money. He might have had patience.*

3. The imperative mode will also be given with *to have*, hough only used with it when employed as an *active* rb.

CONJUGATION OF *TO HAVE*, AS AN AUXILIARY AND ACTIVE VERB.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, or Simple.	*Past, or Compound.*
To have	To have had

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.	*Preterperf. or Compound Pres.*
I have	I have had
thou hast	thou hast had
he, she, or it has *	he, she, or it has had
we have	we have had
you have	you have had
they have	they have had.
eterimperfect, or Past Tense.	*Preterpluperf. or Compound Past.*
I had	I had had
thou hadst	thou hadst had
he had	he had had
we had	we had had
you had	you had had
they had	they had had

* The pronouns of the *third* person singular of the feminine and uter genders are omitted in the rest of the tenses; though they are be understood.

Instead of *has*, in the third person singular, *hath* is sometimes used in etry and in scripture.

Future Tense.	*Fut. Perf. or Compound Future.*
I shall or will have	I shall or will have had
thou shalt or wilt have	thou shalt or wilt have had
he shall or will have	he shall or will have had
we shall or will have	we shall or will have had
you shall or will have	you shall or will have had
they shall or will have	they shall or will have had

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present and Future Tenses.

If* I have, *or* I may, might, could, would, *or* should have
If thou have, *or* thou may, might, could, would, *or* should have
If he have, *or* he may, might, could, would, *or* should have
If we have, *or* we may, might, could, would, *or* should have
If you have, *or* you may, might, could, would, *or* should have
If they have, *or* they may, might, could, would, *or* should have

Compound Past Tense.

I may, might, could, would, *or* should have had
thou may, might, could, would, *or* should have had
he may, might, could, would, *or* should have had
we may, might, could, would, *or* should have had
you may, might, could, would, *or* should have had
they may, might, could, would, *or* should have had

IMPERATIVE MODE†.

Let me have	let us have
have thou, *or* do thou have	have you, *or* do you have
let him, her, *or* it have	let them have

PARTICIPLES.

Present	Having
Past	had
Perfect, or *Compound Past* . . .	having had

* The conjunction *if*, or any other conditional conjunction, may also be used before the *signs* of the subjunctive; as, *If I should have. Unless he may have. Provided we might have. If thou* should *have. Provided thou* might *have*, &c. It is the same with the past tense of this mode; and this remark applies to every verb.

† Although some respectable grammarians have asserted, and perhaps not without reason, that the imperative mode cannot apply to a *first* or a *third* person, since we can only command or entreat a *second* person; the system generally followed has been adopted in this Grammar; *because the pupil* in learning foreign languages, will generally find *the imperative employed* with the three persons.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO BE.*

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, or Simple.	*Past, or Compound.*
To be	To have been

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.	*Preterperf. or Compound Present.*
I am	I have been
thou art	thou hast been
he she, *or* it is	he has been
we are	we have been
you are	you have been
they are	they have been
Preterimperfect, or Past Tense.	***Preterpluperf. or Compound Past.***
I was	I had been
thou wast	thou hadst been
he was	he had been
we were	we had been
you were	you had been
they were	they had been
Future Tense.	*Fut. Perf. or Compound Future.*
I shall or will be	I shall or will have been
thou shalt or wilt be	thou shalt or wilt have been
he shall or will be	he shall or will have been
we shall or will be	we shall or will have been
you shall or will be	you shall or will have been
they shall or will be	they shall or will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present and Future Tenses.

If I be, *or*, I may, might, could, would, *or* should be
If thou be, *or*, thou may, might, could, would, *or* should be
If he be, *or*, he may, might, could, would, *or* should be
If we be, *or*, we may, might, could, would, *or* should be
If you be, *or*, you, may, might, could, would, *or* should be
If they be, *or*, they may, might, could, would, *or* should be

This verb is the only one which has the peculiarity in the subjunctive mode, of a separate form in the *simple past tense*, without the *signs ;* as,

If I were	If we were
If thou were	If you were
If he were	If they were

Compound Past Tense.

I may, might, could, would, *or* should have been
thou may, might, could, would, *or* should have been
he may, might, could, would, *or* should have been
we may, might, could, would, *or* should have been
you may, might, could, would, *or* should have been
they may, might, could, would, *or* should have been

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Let me be	let us be
be thou, *or* do thou be	be you, *or* do you be
let him, her, *or* it be	let them be

PARTICIPLES.

Present Being
Passive been
Perfect having been

CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present or Simple.	*Past or Compound.*
To form	To have formed

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.	*Preterperf., or Compound Pres*
I form	I have formed
thou formest	thou hast formed
he forms (*or* formeth)*	he has formed
we form	we have formed
you form	you have formed
they form	they have formed
Preterimperfect or Past Tense.	***Preterpluperf., or Compound P***
I formed	I had formed
thou formedst	thou hadst formed
he formed	he had formed
we formed	we had formed
you formed	you had formed
they formed	they had formed
Future Tense.	*Fut. Perf., or Compound Fut*
I shall or will form	I shall or will have formed
thou shalt or wilt form	thou shalt or wilt have forme
he shall or will form	he shall or will have formed
we shall or will form	we shall or will have formed
you shall or will form	you shall or will have forme
they shall or will form	they shall or will have forme

* *The third* person singular of this and all other verbs, formed by *addition of th, is* only used in the poetical, or in the grave style.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present and Future Tenses.

If I form, *or*, I may, might, could, would, *or* should form
If thou form, *or*, thou may, might, could, would, *or* should form
If he forms, *or*, he may, might, could, would, *or* should form
If we form, *or*, we may, might, could, would, *or* should form
If you form, *or*, you may, might, could, would, *or* should form
If they form, *or*, they may, might, could, would, *or* should form

Compound Past Tense.

I may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed
thou may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed
he may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed
we may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed
you may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed
they may, might, could, would, *or* should have formed

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Let me form	let us form
form thou, *or* do thou form	form you, *or* do you form
let him, her, *or* it form	let them form

PARTICIPLES.

Present	Forming
Past	formed
Perfect, or Compound Past	having formed

4. The foregoing verb, *To form*, is given as a general standard for conjugating all the *regular* verbs in the English language. There are, however, some verbs that undergo a few slight deviations from this model; but are nevertheless to be considered as *regular* verbs; since all verbs in which the past tense of the indicative, and the past participle end in *ed*, are called *regular*. We have seen in the verb *to form*, that the 2nd person singular, of the present indicative, is formed by the addition of *est* to the infinitive; and the 3rd person by *s:* the 2nd person singular of the past indicative, by *edst:* the other persons of this tense, and also the past participle by *ed;* the participle present by *ing;* and that in all the other tenses and persons of the indicative, the verb preserves the same form which it has in the infinitive, as is the case also throughout the subjunctive and imperative *modes.*

The following Table will exhibit, at one view, all the deviations just alluded to.

	Infinitive.	Indic. Pres.		Indic. Past.		Participle Present.	Participle Past.
		2d Per.	3d Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.		
General Standard	To form	formest	forms	formedst	formed	forming	formed
Deviations.							
Infinitives ending in a single *e*, drop the *e*, before they admit the additionals	to love	lovest	loves	lovedst	loved	loving	loved
Infinitives ending in *ie*, change these letters into *y*, in the Particip. Present	to die					dying	
Infinitives ending in *ch*, *sh*, *ss*, *x*, or *z*, take *es* in the 3rd per. Pres. Indic.	to watch		watches				
	to lash		lashes				
	to cross		crosses				
	to tax		taxes				
	to buzz		buzzes				
Infinitives ending in *y*, immediately preceded by a consonant, change the *y*, into *i*, except in the Part. Present	to cry	criest	cries	criedst	cried		cried
But should the *y*, be immediately preceded by a vowel, the *y* is not changed; as *to delay, delayed*, &c.							
Infinitives of one syllable ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant, except in the 3rd per. sing. of the Pres. Indic.	to skip	skippest		skippedst	skipped	skipping	skipped
The same takes place with infinitives of more than one syllable, having the accent on the last	to commit	committest		committedst	committed	committing	committed
But should the accent fall on any syllable but the last, the general standard is followed; as to *remember, remembered*, &c.							

CONJUGATION OF PASSIVE VERBS.

A *passive* verb is formed by adding the *past participle* f any active verb to the verb *to be*, as follows:

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, or Simple.	*Past, or Compound.*
To be loved	To have been loved

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.	*Preterperf., or Compound Pres.*
I am loved	I have been loved
thou art loved	thou hast been loved
he is loved	he has been loved
we are loved	we have been loved
you are loved	you have been loved
they are loved	they have been loved

nd so on, throughout all the other tenses and modes.

CONJUGATION OF REFLECTIVE VERBS.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, or Simple.	*Past, or Compound.*
To love oneself	To have loved oneself

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.	*Preterperf. or Compound Pres.*
I love myself	I have loved myself
thou lovest thyself	thou hast loved thyself
he loves himself	he has loved himself
we love ourselves	we have loved ourselves
you love yourselves	you have loved yourselves
they love themselves	they have loved themselves

nd so on throughout the whole of the verb.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

5. The irregularities in these verbs are always in the past ense of the Indicative mode, and in the past participle, in ddition to those changes which regular verbs undergo, as nentioned in Par. 4 of this Lecture. The auxiliary verbs o *have*, and *to be*, as we have seen by their conjugations, ıave however some other irregularities. In the following ist *are given all the irregular* verbs in the English language,

and by looking at the two columns under the heads of *past tense*, and *past participle*, the irregularities in each, will immediately be seen. With the past tense will be given a pronoun to each, as a nominative, and the participles will have an auxiliary in addition. Those verbs with an R after them, have also the regular form of conjugation.

Infinitive.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
To abide	I abode	I have abode
to arise	I arose	I have arisen
to awake	I awoke R.	I have awaked
to be	I was	I have been
to bear (to bring forth)	I bore, *or* bare *	I have borne
to bear (to carry)	I bore, *or* bare	I have borne
to beat	I beat	I have beaten, *or* beat
to begin	I began	I have begun
to bend	I bent	I have bent
to bereave	I bereft R.	I have bereft R.
to beseech	I besought	I have besought
to bid †, *for-*	I bade	I have bidden
to bind, *un-*	I bound	I have bound
to bite	I bit	I have bitten, *or* bit
to bleed	I bled	I have bled
to blow	I blew	I have blown
to break	I broke	I have broken
to breed	I bred	I have bred
to bring	I brought	I have brought
to build, *re-*	I built	I have built
to burst	I burst	I have burst
to buy	I bought	I have bought
to cast	I cast	I have cast
to catch	I caught R.	I have caught R.
to chide	I chid	I have chidden, *or* chid
to choose	I chose	I have chosen
to cleave (to adhere)	I clave R.	I have cleaved
to cleave (to split)	I clove, *or* cleft	I have cloven, *or* cleft
to cling	I clung	I have clung
to clothe	I clothed	I have clad R.
to come, *be-*	I came	I have come
to cost	I cost	I have cost
to creep	I crept	I have crept

* *Bare* is found in ancient writings, but is now nearly obsolete.

† The compound verbs are conjugated in the same manner as the *simple ones from* which they are formed.

Infinitive.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
to crow	I crew R.	I have crowed
to cut	I cut	I have cut
to dare * (to venture)	I durst	I have dared
to deal	I dealt R.	I have dealt R.
to dig	I dug R.	I have dug R.
to do, *mis-, un-*	I did	I have done
to draw, *with-*	I drew	I have drawn
to drink	I drank	I have drunk
to drive	I drove	I have driven
to dwell	I dwell	I have dwelt
to eat	I ate	I have eaten
to fall, *be-*	I fell	I have fallen
to feed	I fed	I have fed
to feel	I felt	I have felt
to fight	I fought	I have fought
to find	I found	I have found
to flee	I fled	I have fled
to fling	I flung	I have flung
to fly	I flew	I have flown
to forbear	I forbore	I have forborne
to forget	I forgot	I have forgotten
to forsake	I forsook	I have forsaken
to freeze	I froze	I have frozen
to get, *be-, for-*	I got	I have got, *or* gotten
to gild	I gilt R.	I have gilt R.
to gird, *be-, en-*	I girt R.	I have girt R.
to give, *for-, mis-*	I gave	I have given
to go	I went	I have gone
to grave, *en-*	I graved	I have graven R.
to grind	I ground	I have ground
to grow	I grew	I have grown
to hang †	I hung	I have hung
to have	I had	I have had
to hear	I heard	I have heard
to heave	I hove R.	I have heaved
to hew	I hewed	I have hewn R.
to hide	I hid	I have hidden, *or* hid
to hit	I hit	I have hit
to hold, *be-, with-*	I held	I have held

* *To dare*, meaning *to challenge*, is regular in its conjugation.

† *To hang*, meaning to take away life by hanging, is regular in its conjugation.

Infinitive.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
to hurt	I hurt	I have hurt
to keep	I kept	I have kept
to kneel	I knelt R.	I have knelt R.
to knit	I knit R.	I have knit R.
to know	I knew	I have known
to lade	I laded	I have laden
to lay, *in-*	I laid	I have laid
to lead, *mis-*	I led	I have led
to leave	I left	I have left
to lend	I lent	I have lent
to let	I let	I have let
to lie (to repose)	I lay	I have lain
to light	I lit R.	I have lit R.
to lose	I lost	I have lost
to make	I made	I have made
to mean	I meant	I have meant
to meet	I met	I have met
to mow	I mowed	I have mown R.
to pay, *re-*	I paid	I have paid
to put	I put	I have put
to quit	I quit R.	I have quit R.
to read	I read	I have read
to rend	I rent	I have rent
to rid	I rid	I have rid
to ride	I rode	I have ridden, *or* rode
to ring	I rang	I have rung
to rise, *a-*	I rose	I have risen
to rive	I rived	I have riven
to run	I ran	I have run
to saw	I sawed	I have sawn R.
to say	I said	I have said
to see	I saw	I have seen
to seek	I sought	I have sought
to seethe	I sod R.	I have sodden
to sell	I sold	I have sold
to send	I sent	I have sent
to set, *be-*	I set	I have set
to shake	I shook	I have shaken
to shape, *mis-*	I shaped	I have shapen R.
to shave	I shaved	I have shaven R.
to shear	I shore R.	I have shorn
to shed	I shed	I have shed
to shine	I shone R.	I have shone R.
to shoe	I shod	I have shod
to shoot	I shot	I have shot

Infinitive.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
, *or* shew	I showed, *or* shewed	I have shown, *or* shewn *
l	I shred	I have shred
k	I shrank, *or* shrunk	I have shrunk
	I shut	I have shut
	I sang	I have sung
	I sank, *or* sunk	I have sunk
	I sat	I have sitten, *or* sat
	I slew	I have slain
	I slept	I have slept
	I slid	I have slidden
	I slang	I have slung
	I slank, *or* slunk	I have slunk
	I slit R.	I have slit R.
	I smote	I have smitten
	I sowed	I have sown R.
:, *be-*	I spoke, *or* spake†	I have spoken
l	I sped	I have sped
l, *mis-*	I spent	I have spent
	I span, *or* spun	I have spun
be-	I spit, *or* spat	I have spitten, *or* spit
	I split	I have split
d, *be-*	I spread	I have spread
g	I sprang	I have sprung
d, *with-*,	I stood	I have stood
	I stole	I have stolen
	I stuck	I have stuck
	I stung	I have stung
	I stank, *or* stunk	I have stunk
', *be-* ‡	I strewed	I have strewn R.
', *be-*	I strode, *or* strid	I have stridden
	I struck	I have struck, *or* stricken
	I strang	I have strung
	I strove	I have striven
', *be-*	I strowed	I have strown R.
r	I swore, *or* sware §	I have sworn
t	I sweat R.	I have sweat R.
p	I swept	I have swept

hew, shewed, and *shewn,* are now almost obsolete.
oake is seen sometimes in ancient writings.
rew is not so much used now as *strow,* which has the same
g.
vare is also antiquated.

Infinitive.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
to swell	I swelled	I have swollen R.
to swim	I swam, *or* swum	I have swum
to swing	I swang	I have swung
to take, *be-*, *over-*, &c.	I took	I have taken
to teach, *un-*, *mis-*, &c.	I taught	I have taught
to tear	I tore	I have torn
to tell	I told	I have told
to think, *be-*	I thought	I have thought
to thrid	I thrid	I have thrid
to thrive	I throve	I have thriven R.
to throw	I threw	I have thrown
to thrust	I thrust	I have thrust
to tread	I trod	I have trodden
to wax	I waxed	I have waxen R.
to wear	I wore	I have worn
to weave	I wove	I have woven
to weep	I wept	I have wept
to wet	I wet R.	I have wet R.
to win	I won	I have won
to wind	I wound	I have wound
to work	I wrought R.	I have wrought R.
to wring	I wrung	I have wrung
to write	I wrote	I have written

OF VERBS USED NEGATIVELY.

6. The common way of employing the verb negatively, is to use the negative *not* after the verb, when there is no auxiliary; as, *I speak not. I drank not.* And between the auxiliary, where there is one, and the principal verb; as, *I shall not speak. I may not drink. You should not hate. They had not slept.* Or after both the auxiliary and the verb; as, *I shall speak not. You should hate not. They had slept not.*

The present and past tenses of the indicative admit of another form, which is with the auxiliary *do;* and is styled the *emphatic* form; because it expresses the negative with greater energy than the common way; as, *I do not speak. I did not sleep.*

There is another way of using the verb negatively

throughout every mode and tense, and which is formed with the auxiliary *to be*, and the participle active of the principal verb; as, *I am not speaking;* or, *I am speaking not. You should not be arguing;* or, *You should be arguing not.*

OF VERBS USED INTERROGATIVELY.

7. In interrogative sentences the nominative is put between the auxiliary and the principal verb; as, *Does he speak? Shall we go? Have they quitted? May I go?*

In the present and past tenses of the indicative, the interrogation may sometimes be formed without the auxiliary; as, *Speak I of him? Came he with them?*

OF VERBS USED INTERROGATIVELY WITH A NEGATIVE.

8. In these sentences, the negative may be put either immediately after the nominative, or after the principal verb; as, *Do I not speak?* or, *Do I speak not? Shall they not come?* or, *Shall they come not? Have you not been?* or, *Have you been not? Should we hear not?* or, *Should we not hear?*

The present and past tenses of the indicative may also be formed without the auxiliary; as, *Speak they not of us? Came I not in time?*

LECTURE XII.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADVERBS.

1. For the definition of this part of speech, the learner is referred to Lecture III. Par. 7. Adverbs are either *simple* or *compound*. Those that consist of one word only are simple; as, *well, now, there*, &c.: the compound are formed of two or more words; as, *at hand, after to-morrow*, &c. For the more correct application of adverbs, they may be divided into different classes, according to their various meanings, *as follows.*

ADVERBS OF MANNER.—These are derived from adjectives, and are formed by the addition of *ly* to the adjective; by which means a numerous list of adverbs of manner may be formed; as, *slowly*, *strongly*, *loudly*, *widely*, *justly*, *openly*, *softly*, *neatly*, *entirely*, &c. When the adjective ends in *y*, this letter is changed into *i*, as from *easy*, *easily*; from *hasty*, *hastily*, &c. When the adjective ends in *le*, the final *e* is dropped; as, from *probable*, *probably*; from *admirable*, *admirably*, &c.

ADVERBS OF PLACE.—*Where*, *whither*, *whence*, *here*, *hither*, *hence*, *yonder*, *there*, *thence*, *within*, *out*, *without*, *above*, *below*, *under*, *before*, *behind*, *aside*, *near*, *next*, *opposite*, *far*, &c.

ADVERBS OF TIME.—*Now*, *yesterday*, *before*, *long since*, *lately*, *whilst*, *then*, *to-day*, *to-morrow*, *presently*, *soon*, *ever*, *never*, *late*, *early*, *always*, *often*, *afterwards*, *since*, *hitherto*, *till now*, *yet*, *meanwhile*, *until*, *almost always*, *once*, *twice*, *seldom*, &c.

ADVERBS OF DOUBT.—*Perhaps*, *perchance*, *rather*, *probably*.

ADVERBS OF QUANTITY AND COMPARISON.—*Little*, *much*, *sufficient*, *more*, *less*, *too much*, *almost*, *so*, *as*, *so much*, *as much*, *how much*, *nearly*, *almost*, *better*, *worse*, &c.

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION.—*Yes*, *truly*, *certainly*, *indeed*, *really*, *undoubtedly*, *in truth*, *no*, *nor*, &c.

2. To these adverbs, a variety of adverbial expressions may be added, of which an infinite number might be formed. The following are a few specimens: *Now and then*, *after to-morrow*, *in the evening*, *little by little*, *on horseback*, *in the English fashion*, *with all speed*, *with all my heart*, &c.

3. Although adverbs have been arranged into different classes, there are several adverbs which belong sometimes to one class and sometimes to another, according to the meaning in which they are taken; for instance, *before* is an adverb of *place* in the phrase *Place it before the fire*; but it is an adverb of *time* in *He arrived before I started*.

4. There are some adverbs of manner, place, and time, *that admit of* degrees of comparison; as, *well*, *better*, *best*;

badly, *worse*, *worst*; *slowly*, *more slowly*, *most slowly*; *far*, *further*, *furthest*; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*; *late*, *later*, *latest*; *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*; or, *often*, *more often*, *most often*, &c.

LECTURE XIII.

ETYMOLOGY OF PREPOSITIONS.

1. The pupil is referred to Lecture III. Par. 8, for the definition of this part of speech. Prepositions are of two kinds, namely, *separable* and *inseparable*. The first have no meaning by themselves, but are employed in composition with other words; as, im*mortal*, ab*stract*, con*dense*, &c. The second have all meanings, both by themselves, and sometimes in the composition of other words; as, *at*, *to*, *before*, *with*, *against*, *of*, *from*, *in*, *between*, *still*, *for*, *by*, *through*, *upon*, *about*, *above*, *across*, *along*, *amidst*, *among*, *amongst*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside*, *between*, *down*, *except*, *into*, *near*, *round*, *respecting*, *off*, *on*, *over*, *since*, *through*, *till*, *under*, *into*, *up*, *upon*, *with*, &c.

2. It must be observed, that the same word is often a preposition in one place and an adverb in another. In the phrase, *He appeared before the judge*, the word *before* is a preposition, governing the noun *judge*; but it is an adverb of time in *He came before I expected him*.

LECTURE XIV.

ETYMOLOGY OF CONJUNCTIONS.

1. In Lecture III. Par. 9, the student will find the definition of this part of speech. Conjunctions are either *copulative* or *disjunctive*. Copulative conjunctions connect words and the parts of a sentence, and unite their meanings; as, *You* and *I may go*, because *we have done our duty*. But disjunctive conjunctions disunite the meanings of the words and members of the sentences which they connect; as, Neither *you* nor *I may go*, unless *we* do our duty.

2. The *copulative* conjunctions are, ***and, also, because,*** *both, for, if, since, that, moreover, so that, in order that, then, therefore, wherefore.*

The *disjunctive* are, *as, but, or, either, nor, neither, notwithstanding, nevertheless, than, though, although, unless, yet, however, except, whereas, lest, provided, whether.*

3. Conjunctions are either simple or compound; the first consist of one word, as *and, if,* &c.; the latter of more than one word, as, *so that, in order that, as well as,* &c.

4. Besides the foregoing conjunctions, there may be formed a variety of expressions that answer the same end as conjunctions; such as, *in-as-much as, for-as-much as, for all that, in case that,* &c.

5. It frequently happens with conjunctions, as with prepositions and adverbs, that the same word may belong to more than one part of speech: for instance, the word *for,* in the first of the following examples, is a *conjunction,* and a *preposition* in the second:—*I know him,* for *I have seen him before. Do it* for *my sake.* The word *but* is an *adverb* in, *I have* but *two to finish;* and a *conjunction* in, *You may go,* but *I must stay.*

PART THE SECOND.

SYNTAX.

LECTURE XV.

1. THIS branch of grammar treats on the proper arrangement of words in the formation of sentences. A sentence may be either simple or compound. A simple sentence has but one nominative case, and one verb in it, and makes complete sense of itself; as, *Experience sometimes makes men wise.* A compound sentence is formed of two or more simple sentences, connected by means of a conjunction; as, *Experience sometimes makes men wise*, yet *few men profit by it.* Or by means of a relative, as, *This is the mayor* that *issued the proclamation.*

In the formation of sentences two things are to be considered; namely, *concord* and *government.* Concord shows how words are made to agree with one another in person, number, gender, and case. The parts of speech that have agreement with one another are the *article*, the *noun*, the *pronoun*, and the *verb.* In English, the article agrees with the noun in number; the pronoun agrees with the noun in number, person, gender, and case; and the verb agrees with the noun or pronoun in person and number. Government is the power that one part of speech has over another, in directing what case, mode, or tense the *regimen* or governed word is required to be in. The parts of speech that have the power of governing, are, the noun, the verb, the preposition, and the conjunction. Nouns govern verbs; verbs govern nouns, pronouns, and verbs; prepositions govern nouns, pronouns, and verbs; and conjunctions govern verbs.

LECTURE XVI.

ARTICLES.

The Indefinite Article a *or* an.

1. Care should be taken to apply the appropriate article *a* or *an* before each corresponding word, when several occur together in a sentence; as, *He is* a talented *and* an accomplished *man*. It would be erroneous to say, *He is a talented and accomplished man*, because *accomplished* requires *an* before it.

2. Sometimes the use or the omission of this article gives widely different meanings to a sentence; as, *He has* a little *respect for him*, means, that he has *some* respect for him; but, *He has* little *respect for him*, implies that if he has any respect at all for him, it is *very* little.

3. This article is employed before nouns of weight, measure, number, or time, in referring to their value or rate; as, *two shillings an ell. Six pence a pound. Ten shillings a hundred. Once a day.*

The Definite Article The.

4. The definite article is employed before nouns taken in a particular or definite sense; as, *The power of the law. The books of your library.*

5. It is omitted before nouns taken in a general and unlimited sense; that is, nouns in which the whole of the kind or species denoted by them is included; as, *Pride and vanity proceed from ignorance. Man is often a slave to avarice.*

6. It is sometimes used before nouns in the singular number, when employed as embracing a whole kind or species; as, *The horse is a noble animal. The sugar-cane grows in tropical climates.*

7. It is frequently employed before nouns of weight, measure, &c., instead of the indefinite article; as, *Five shillings the bushel. Twenty shillings the hundred*, &c.

8. It is improper to omit the article before the second noun in such phrases as the following; *I speak of the landlord and tenant.* It should be *the* landlord and *the* tenant; for without the repetition of the article, the landlord and tenant would imply but one person. This rule also applies to the indefinite article; as, *The premises were occupied by a tailor and a draper;* unless we mean that the premises were occupied by one individual who was at the same time both tailor and draper.

9. The article is frequently repeated, when a peculiar emphasis requires the repetition; as, *Not only the house, but the furniture,* the *goods, and even* the *papers were seized.*

LECTURE XVII.

NOUNS.

1. When two or more nouns singular are connected by the copulative conjunction *and,* they require the verb and pronoun referring to them to be in the plural number; as, *William* and *Henry* deserve *praise, for* they are *assiduous. Courage, sincerity,* and *frankness,* are *recommendable qualities.*

2. Two or more nominatives in the singular number, separated by the disjunctive conjunction *or* or *nor,* require the verb and pronoun to be in the singular number; as *neither John* nor *Thomas* was *idle, because* each was *engaged at* his *respective duty. An advice* or *a reprimand* has *not always* its *desired effects.*

3. When two or more nominatives in the singular number, but of different persons, separated by *or,* or *nor,* occur in a sentence, each nominative should have a separate verb; as, *either Thomas is wanted* or *I am,* (*wanted* understood.) *Neither is Henry,* nor *am I correct.* It would be erroneous to say "*either Thomas or I am wanted.*" "*Neither I nor Henry is correct.*"

4. The same rule applies if the sentence should contain singular and plural nominatives separated by *or,* or *nor;*

for instance, the two following sentences are *incorrect;* "*Either William or his brothers are gone.*" "Neither I, nor he, nor his friends were permitted to go."—They should be thus expressed; *Either William* is *gone*, or *his brothers are* (*gone* understood.) *Neither* was *I*, nor *he*, nor were *his friends permitted to go.*—Or in this manner; *either William* is, or *his brothers* are *gone*. *Neither* was *I*, nor *he permitted to go*, nor were *his friends.*

5. When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun referring to different things, come together in a sentence, the first is put in the possessive case; as, *John's book; The soldier's reward; His candour; Her beauty.* Words, or parts of a sentence should not be placed between a noun in the possessive case, and the word coming after it, as in the following instance; *He blamed the rash young man's*, as he styled him, *impetuosity;* this should be, *He blamed the impetuosity of the rash young man, as he styled him.*

6. When several nouns in the possessive case come together, the sign of the possessive case is affixed to the last noun only; as, *The man, woman, and children's garments. Emily, Jane, and Maria's books.* But should any word or words intervene between them, the sign should be repeated; as *Emily's and Maria's, and even Jane's books.*

7. It is customary to annex the apostrophe only, without the *s*, to the nouns singular or plural ending in *s;* as, *Charles' horse. The soldiers' pay.* When the plural noun does not end in *s*, as, *men, women*, the possessive is formed as with the singular; as *men's, women's.*

8. In some instances the apostrophe and *s* are employed alone with the noun in the possessive case, leaving the noun possessed to be understood; as, *He lives at the general's. I come from the doctor's.* Where we see that the *sign* occupies the place of residence, or house, or such like.

9. When two nouns are connected by means of a hyphen, the former is in the possessive case, and the hyphen supplies the place of the *sign;* as, *window-curtains, house-door, chamber-maid.*

10. Sometimes the possessive case is more elegantly formed with the preposition *of;* as, *The precepts* of *wisdom should be the delight* of *man.*

11. There are instances which require both forms of the possessive case in the same noun; as, *This is a play* of *Shakspeare's;* meaning, *one of Shakspeare's plays.* Observe also the following: *The Queen* of *England's prerogatives. The Emperor* of *Russia's dominions.*

12. Several nouns in apposition, that is, several nouns referring to the same thing, coming together in a sentence, require to be put in the same case; as, *Thomson the Poet, author of the "Seasons." The city* of *Paris, capital* of *France, and residence* of *the court.* In the first of these examples, *Thomson, Poet,* and *Author,* are one and the same person; and in the second, *Paris, Capital,* and *Court,* refer to the same place.

13. A noun of multitude that conveys the idea of an aggregate body, requires the verb and pronoun which have reference to it to be in the *singular* number; and in the *plural* number if it conveys plurality of idea; as, *The* regiment was *defeated in* its *retreat.* Parliament assembles *this day, and* it *will soon be dissolved. The* multitude were *dispersed, and several of* them *were taken. The* rabble were *attacked as* they *approached the town.* In *regiment* and *parliament* there is a unity of idea, because each constitutes a formed body; whereas *multitude* and *rabble* do not imply unity, since neither forms any organised body.

14. A phrase, or part of a sentence may sometimes constitute a *nominative;* as, *Their continually going about intent upon mischief,* is *sufficient evidence of their malignant propensities.*

15. A phrase or part of a sentence may also constitute an *objective* after a verb; as, *We frequently* observe, *men acting contrary to reason. Mistrust* the *tongue of the flattering man.*

16. When the verb *to be* stands between two nominatives of different numbers, care should be taken to make it agree with the one which is more properly its nominative; as

The thanks which he received was censure; that is, *censure was* the thanks which he received. *The objection to the project* were *the* difficulties *it presented:* that is, the *difficulties* were the objection.

17. The noun or pronoun employed in the answer to a question, must be in the same case as that of the pronoun in the interrogative; as, Who *is there?*—I. Whose *house is this?*—Edward's. *By* whom *was it done?—By* him. *Of* which *do you speak?*—Of *this.*

18. Adjectives, participles and infinitives, are frequently employed in the capacity of nouns, and when so employed they must be treated as, and be subject to the same rules of syntax as nouns; as, *The* powerful *often take advantage of the* weak. *Good* reading *improves the mind. In the* beginning *of the world. Strive to relieve the* oppressed. "To err *is human*, to forgive *divine.*"

19. Every nominative case, except the nominative absolute, must have a verb expressed or implied, agreeing with it in number and person. The nominative absolute is a noun or pronoun joined to a participle active forming a parenthetical phrase independent of the rest of the sentence; as, *We shall leave to-morrow*, the weather permitting, *for Hamburg. John will not be here to-day*, his brother having come to town.

20. In the natural order of language, the nominative precedes, and the accusative follows the verb, but this natural order may, for the sake of elegance, energy, or harmony, be inverted, as in the following examples.

Nom. after the Verb.

"Slow *runs* the *Pegasus* that wins the bays."—YOUNG.
"So *fought* the *bridegroom.*"—SCOTT.
"As *rolls* the *ocean's changing tide.*"—BYRON.

Acc. before the Verb.

"Beauty, like ice, our *footing does betray.*"—DRYDEN.
" 'Tis vain,
The *course* of love and nature *to restrain.*"—CRABBE.
"Like tears that do their own *disgrace bewail.*"—SHAKSPEARE.

LECTURE XVIII.

PRONOUNS.

Personal.

1. Personal pronouns must be in the same number, person, gender, and case as the nouns would be which they stand in the place of; as *This is the* man, *and* he *must be paid; with regard to the* woman, *I will pay* her. *Here is the* boy, *you may speak to* him. *The* girls *are here, and you may give* them *the books. Do not tease the* dog, *for* it *will bite you. These* pears *are good; taste* them.

2. When a pronoun refers to persons or things of different numbers, the pronoun must be used in the plural number, and in the *first* person, if the persons or things referred to be in the 1st and 2d, or 1st and 3d persons; and in the *second* person, if they be of the 2d and 3d persons; and in the *third* person, if they be all of the 3d person; as, I *and* you, or, I *and* he *are called, and* we *must go.* You *and* they *were there yesterday and* you *must be there to-morrow also. The* man *and his* horses *were taken, but* they *were soon released. The* pens *and the* ink *were on the table, but* they *are not there now.*

3. The pronoun that follows a comparative must be in the nominative or other case according as it governs a verb, or is governed by a verb or preposition understood; as *That* man *is* taller *than* I (am). *He admires* her more *than* (he does) me. *He admires* her more *than* I (do). She *is* as attentive *as* he (is). *The book would be* better *written* by him *than* (by) her. *They speak* less of her *than* (of) him.

Relative.

4. Relative pronouns are employed in reference to some antecedent noun or pronoun, expressed or understood. They are, *who, which,* and *that,* and may relate to antecedents of any number, person, or gender: they invariably precede the verb.

5. *Who,* refers to persons only, and becomes *whose,* or of

whom in the genitive case, and *whom*, in the dative, accusative, and ablative cases. Ex. *The* man who *came*, whose *letter you received, and* of whom *you demanded an explanation.* I, whom *you have betrayed, and* to whom *you have done so much injury. Those* persons by whom *the act was committed.*

6. *Which*, refers to irrational beings and to inanimate objects, and in asking questions it may refer also to persons. It is employed in all the cases without altering its form; and in the nominative it is employed indifferently with *that;* as *The* dog which *or* that is here. *The* houses of which *you speak, and* of which *the rooms are spacious. I speak of the* cities to which *you have been. The* birds which *he shot, and the gun* with which *he shot them.* Which *of those* ladies *do you speak* of? To which gentleman *did you give the letter?*

7. *That*, may refer to persons, and to irrational and inanimate objects; as, *The* man that came *yesterday. The* horses that *you sold me. I have disposed of the* goods that *I bought of you.* The relative *that*, cannot, like *who* or *which*, be governed by a verb or preposition, as in the sentences, Bring *whom, or which you please. Give it* to *whom, or* to *which you like;* for we cannot say, Bring that *you please*, nor *give it* to that *you like.*

We generally employ *that*, instead of *who* or *which*, when there are two antecedents, the one a person the other not; as, *The* man *and the* horse that *are here.* Also after *who*, used interrogatively; as, Who that *has seen the picture could but admire it?* And also after superlatives; as, *This is the* best that *we know of.*

Custom, in some instances, seems to prefer the use of *that*, as a relative after the words *all, any, same, some;* as, All that *are of the same opinion.* Any *one* that *has seen him.* Some *person* that *knows you. She is the* same *lady* that *you saw yesterday.*

8. *What*, is likewise employed as a relative, in asking questions, and refers to persons and to irrational and inanimate objects; and may be used in any of the cases; as,

What man is *that?* Of what animals *does the book treat?* To what country *is he gone?* What *will you give me?* By what *was it done?*

9. The verb that follows the relative agrees in number and person with the antecedent; as, Thou *who* hast *come. The* oxen *that* were *killed.*

10. When the antecedent is not expressed, the relative stands in its place as a nominative to the verb; as, Who brought *the news shall receive the reward;* i. e.—the *person who brought*, &c.

11. When a relative has two antecedents of different persons, the verb following the relative, agrees with the second antecedent; as, *I am the* person who is *appointed to go. You are the* boy who has *said his lesson best.*

12. When the relative and the antecedent come together, and have reference to two different verbs, the relative stands as a nominative to the first verb, and the antecedent to the second; as, *He* that labours *will reap the fruit.*

13. The use of *whom*, instead of *who*, after *than*, has been introduced by custom, though contrary to analogy: For instance, sentences of a similar construction to the following, are to be met with in the writings of the best authors. "*Aristoteles*, than whom *no ancient philosopher is more generally esteemed.*" This is evidently ungrammatical, because *Aristoteles* is here in the *nominative* case. *No ancient philosopher is more generally esteemed than* he *is.* Analogy, therefore, required, "Aristoteles than *who*", &c., yet many of the best speakers and writers would perhaps say "*than whom.*"

LECTURE XIX.

VERBS.

1. A verb must agree in number and person with its agent or nominative case; as, I speak *the truth.* Plato was *a disciple of Socrates. The* writings *of that author* have

been much praised. You are *wrong*. All is *right*. They agree *to it*. We do *not deny it*.

2. Active verbs and participles derived therefrom, govern a noun or pronoun in the accusative case; as, *I* saw *the* man. *He* struck me. Him *and* her *you may* send, *but* me *you cannot* send. *He is* instructing himself *and* them.

3. A neuter verb does not govern; as, *The book* lies upon *the* table. *She was* seated on *a* sofa. These verbs *to lie* and *to be seated*, are neuter, and the nouns *table* and *sofa* are not governed by them, but by the prepositions by which they are preceded.

4. Active, passive, and neuter verbs, and participles, admit verbs in the infinitive mode after them; as, Remember to do *your duty*. *He* is *not* permitted to stay. *They* came to see *me*. *He is* preparing to go. *He is* come to remain *for some time*.

5. When an infinitive follows either of the verbs *to bid*, *to dare*, *to feel*, *to hear*, *to let*, *to make*, *to need*, *to observe*, *to perceive*, *to see*, it is employed without the sign *to*; as, *I* heard *them* sing. *He* made *me* stay. *You* need *not* return. *I* saw *the man* enter the *house*, &c. When, however, these verbs are used in the passive form, the infinitive, which follows, generally admits the *to*; as, *He was heard to say*. *They were made to come*.

6. Errors sometimes occur, if particular attention be not paid, in confounding the active verbs *to lay*, and *to raise*, with the neuter verbs *to lie* and *to rise*. To *lay*, has *lay* or *laid* for its past tense, and *laid* for its past participle. To *raise* is a regular verb. To *lie*, forms its past tense with *lay*, and its past participle with *lain*. *Rose*, is the past tense, and *risen* the past participle of to *rise*; as, Lay *that book in the manner that he* laid *or* lay *it*; and *as I have* laid *this*; *then* raise *it*, *as he* raised *his*, and as *I have* raised *mine*. *You may* lie *on the sofa where you* lay *this morning*, *and where I have just* lain. *You did not* rise *yesterday*, *nor have you* risen *to-day*, *as early as I* rose *yesterday*.

7. Care should be taken to employ the past participle, and not the past tense, in the formation of the compound

tenses of irregular verbs, because as they are subject to many irregularities, errors frequently occur in their employment: for instance, it is erroneous to say, *It is* began; *he has* forsook *her; the grass has been* mowed. *Began*, *forsook*, and *mowed*, are the past tense of the verbs; and these phrases required the past participles, *begun*, *forsaken*, *mown*.

8. The noun or pronoun that follows the verb *to be*, is in the same case as the noun or pronoun that precedes it; as, He is *the* man *that came*. I am he *whom you addressed*. It was he *that spoke*. *If* I were he. *I took* it to be them.

9. Sometimes there are words accompanying a noun or pronoun, which, together, form a nominative case, and require a verb in the plural number; but when these additional words are merely introduced to explain something relating to the noun or pronoun, and having nothing to do with the action of the verb, they do not form a part of the nominative case, and then the verb is used in the singular number; as, *The* captain with his brave men have *suffered many privations*. *The* captain, *with his men* has *frustrated the enemy's design*. In the first example the verb is used in the plural, because the captain as well as the men suffered privations: but in the second, the verb is employed in the singular, because the *captain* alone is the *agent*, and his men are only *instrumental* in the act. *I with my friends* were *invited*. *The* general, *with his staff*, is *gone* to *receive the duke*.

10. Although in treating on the subordinate verb, or the verb in the subjunctive mode, in Etymology, Lecture IX., Par. 17, it was said that it is preceded by a conjunction, (expressed or understood,) it is not all conjunctions that require the verbs which follow them, to be in the subjunctive mode; and very frequently the same conjunction that requires the subjunctive in some instances, requires the indicative in others. It is necessary to attend to the meaning of the conjunction to know what mode should follow it, because the same conjunction does not always carry with it the same meaning. It is also necessary to pay attention to the meaning of the sentence to be guided in the employment

of the verb in the one or the other mode. Take for instance the following examples. *If he* is *innocent why torment him?* *If he* be *innocent his innocence will manifest itself.* In the first example, the speaker speaks as though he were certain of the man's innocence, and as a consequence asks, *why he should be tormented?* but in the second, the speaker is not positive as to the man's innocence, and therefore says "*if*," meaning *in case that*, or, *provided* "*he be innocent*," &c., and here we see that the conjunction *if*, carries with it a meaning of *doubt* or *uncertainty*, and therefore requires the subjunctive mode; whereas the *if* in the first example conveying the idea of *certainty*, for it means, *since that*, or, *as it is so that*, requires the indicative.

Whenever the verb, preceded by a conjunction, implies any kind of uncertainty in the action, it must be put in the subjunctive mode; as, Whether *he* be *of the same opinion or not, it is immaterial.* *It shall be done*, provided *he* wish *it.* If *he* should come, *let me know.* *I intend leaving to-morrow* whether *he* return *or not.*

In the foregoing examples we see also that the *signs* of the subjunctive, may, by way of ellipses, be sometimes omitted; but they are nevertheless always understood.

11. With the verb *to be* in the subjunctive mode, the conjunction is frequently omitted, and the order of the construction reversed; as, Were *he to come.* Were *it so*, &c., which are equivalent to If *he* were *to come.* If *it* were *so*, &c.

12. The expression *it were*, is sometimes used instead of *it would be;* as, It were *folly indeed to pretend to oppose the laws of nature.*

> "It were the greatest misery known,
> To be in Paradise alone."

LECTURE XX.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

Adverbs.

1. *The situation* of the adverb in a sentence, is a matter *that depends much* on taste: however, it is generally placed

after the verb, in its simple form; between the auxiliary and the verb, in its compound form, and before the adjective; as, *He writes* well, *and his writings are* much *esteemed. She dances* elegantly. *They are* extremely *good.*

Nevertheless the strength of adverbs depends very much on their position in a sentence; and the perspicuity of the construction demands also great care in the proper placing of the adverb. In the following sentence the adverbs acquire additional force, by their being placed before the verb: *The soldiers* promptly *obeyed the order of their general*, and cheerfully *marched* to the execution thereof.

2. The misplacing of the adverb renders the following sentence obscure: *During the whole of the evening, Maria only sang* once. This, strictly speaking, would mean, that *during the whole of the evening, Maria* did nothing else than *sing once:* whereas the meaning intended to be conveyed, is, that Maria sang *only once*, (whatever else she may have done,) during the whole of the evening. The sentence should therefore be thus expressed. *During the whole of the evening, Maria sang* only once, *or* once only.

3. Two negatives in the same clause generally destroy each other. It is therefore improper to say, *He will* not *come on* no *account whatsoever. We could* not *do* no *more.* They should be, *He will* not *come on* any *account whatsoever. We could do* no *more;* or, *We could* not *do more*, or, *any more.*

There are instances, however, in which two negatives may be employed in an affirmative sense; as, Neither *did he* not *say his lesson properly*, nor *did he* not *come in time, as they reported of him.*

Negative adverbs coupled with words having negative particles prefixed or affixed to them form another variety of affirmative expression; as, *It is* not dis*advantageous*, nor *is it* un*profitable. It is* neither in*consistent* nor im*possible. He did* not mis*understand me. His writings are* not fault*less.*

4. Care should be taken not to use adjectives in the place of adverbs, nor adverbs in the place of adjectives; as, *He acts* conformable *to the laws. They performed* the task

in a manner agreeably *to all.* In the first example, *acts* being a verb, requires an adverb to qualify it; as, *He acts* conformably *with the laws;* in the second, *manner*, being a noun, requires an adjective to qualify it; as, *They performed the task in a manner* agreeable *to all.*

5. *Here*, means in this place; *there*, in that place; and *where*, in which place. *Hither*, signifies, to this place; *thither*, to that place; and *whither*, to which place. *Hence*, is equivalent to, from here; *thence*, from there; and *whence*, from where.

With verbs of motion, *hither*, *thither*, and *whither* should be used; as, *Come hither. Go thither. Whither is he gone?* Nevertheless, custom has sanctioned the use of *here*, *there*, and *where*, in many of these cases. Analogy also does not admit the use of *from* before *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, although the best speakers and writers frequently do use it before these adverbs.

PREPOSITIONS.

6. Prepositions govern the genitive, dative, and ablative cases; *of* governs the genitive; *to* and *for* govern the dative; *by*, *with*, *from*, *through*, and a few others, govern the ablative; as, *I neither speak* of him *nor* of her. *Did you deliver the letter* to *your* brother, *that was sent here* for him? *It is written* by *the same* author, from *whose* book *you quoted.* (See Lecture VI. on the cases.) The prepositions *to*, *at*, and *in*, are used before the names of countries, cities, towns, &c., in the following manner. *To* is required with a verb of motion; as, *He* went first to *France, and thence* to *Madrid. At* is employed before towns, villages, and foreign cities; as, *He built a house* at Dover *and another* at Hampstead. *He resides* at Paris. *In* is used before countries and large cities; as, *They are* in Spain. *He lives* in London.

When a preposition does not govern any of the cases it is used as an adverb; as, *He arrived* before *I did. Wait* till *I come.*

CONJUNCTIONS.

7. *Conjunctions* connect the same cases of nouns and

pronouns; as, They and he *were correct*, but I *was in error*. *He called* on *my* brother and me.

8. Conjunctions connect the same modes and tenses of verbs, when the nominative is not repeated; as, *She* writes *well*, but speaks *indifferently*. *If he* should come and (should) leave *any message*, &c.

9. When conjunctions connect different modes, the nominative is generally repeated before each verb; as, *He* fears that *he* may be *apprehended*. *They* went that *they* might not be *suspected*.

10. The nominative is frequently repeated in the same mode and tense, when a contrast is made with the conjunction connecting the two verbs; as, *She* is *learned*, but *she* does *not show her learning*. *He* may be *rich*, though *he* may *not* appear *so*.

11. There are a few conjunctions that are used in pairs, and between them a suitable correspondence should be observed: Ex.

As—as: *To be idle is* as *bad* as *to be doing ill*.

As—so: As *you promise*, so *you should perform*.

Either—or: Either *I am wrong*, or *you are*.

Neither—nor: Neither *act* nor *promise hastily*.

So—as: No *riches can make one* so *happy* as *a clear conscience*. *He speaks* so as *to be understood*.

So—that: *She speaks* so *low* that *no one can hear her*.

Though—yet: Though *he is rich*, yet *he is not proud*.

Though—nevertheless: Though *he has not succeeded*, nevertheless *he will not abandon the trial*.

(The *yet* and the *nevertheless* may be properly suppressed after *though*.)

Whether—or: Whether *he come* or *not*.

ON PARSING.

It would be impossible to state at what precise period of the pupil's progress, he should begin to be practised in parsing: this would in a great measure depend on the capacity of the learner, and should be left to the judgment of the preceptor. It would, however, be advisable that he should begin to parse as early as possible; commencing by easy sentences (as will here follow) in which there are nouns and articles; then others with nouns and adjectives, and so on, progressively, without at first having any reference to their accidence, till he is able to distinguish at once, every part of speech respectively from the other. In performing this task, the following questions (or others similar) should be put to him as he points out each part of speech; to which he should be taught to give similar answers to those annexed to each question.

On the Article.—How do you know that it is an article? Because it points out the noun that follows it.—Name the articles in the English language: *a*, *an*, *the*.

On the Noun.—Why a noun? Because it is the name of a person, a place, or a thing, and makes sense by itself. It can be seen, heard, felt, or conceived in the mind.—What do you understand by its being conceived in the mind? That it refers to something that I can neither see, hear, nor touch; but of which I can form an idea in my mind.—Mention a few of this kind of nouns: *virtue*, *vice*, *goodness*, *anxiety*, *happiness*, *learning*, *idleness*, *rage*, *&c.*

On the Adjective.—Why do you think it is an adjective? Because it describes the quality, dimension, colour, or character of the noun A. or of the noun B. understood.—Name a few adjectives and say what they denote: *fine*, *coarse*, *good*, *bad*, denote quality; *large*, *small*, *wide*, *narrow*, express dimension; *red*, *yellow*, *blue*, *white*, *black*, denote colour; *benevolent*, *kind*, *morose*, *fierce*, denote character.

On the Pronoun.—How do you know that it is a pronoun? *By its being* used in the place of the noun A.—

What is the use of a pronoun? It is intended to avoid the repetition of the noun.

On the Verb.—Why is it a verb? Because it denotes a state of existence, or it describes an action.—Which is the verb in "That boy is asleep"? *Is*, because it denotes the state in which the boy is.—Describe some verbs that denote action: *to read*, *to write*, *to spell*, *to pay*, *to eat*, *to break*, *to mend*.

On the Adverb.—By what do you know it to be an adverb? By its describing the *manner* in which the action of the verb A. is performed. By its expressing the *degree* of the quality of the adjective B. By its showing the *extent* of the signification of the adverb C.

On the Preposition*.—How do you know it is a preposition? By its pointing out the locality of the noun A. By its referring to the place or situation of the noun B.

On the Conjunction*.—Why a conjunction? Because it connects the nouns A. and B. Because it unites the first and second clauses in the sentence C.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

The book belongs to John. Where are the pens? The ink is not good. I have written a letter to Henry, who resides at York. We leave Bristol for Bath, by the railway. Are those the men, women and children? Is this your dog? What fine horses they are. I have bought a pencil, a ruler, and an inkstand. The trees of your orchard bear fruit. I have made a nosegay of the flowers, which I plucked from the garden. The kindness, the attention, and the civility which he showed me. A good behaviour is becoming. Acquire wisdom and uprightness. Content is the

* Before the pupil begins to parse, he should learn, by heart, the lists of prepositions and conjunctions; because their peculiar import cannot be conceived by him in so striking a manner as the other parts of speech;—moreover, beginners are frequently apt to confound them with one another, since very frequently the same word may be an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction, according to the sense in which it is *taken*.

true philosopher's stone. Inconstancy is the attendant of weak minds.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

It is a large and handsome city. Its streets are wide and clean. Its squares are spacious and airy. That is a stupendous edifice. Those houses are lofty and elegant. The weather is hot and dry now, though it has been cold and damp. The atmosphere is clear, and not overcast. He is a kind, benevolent, and charitable man. They are haughty and overbearing. She had on a green dress, a black velvet shawl, white gloves, and a dark coloured bonnet.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE PRONOUN.

If you see Charles, desire him to tell his brother and sister that I wish to see them to-morrow. Can you tell me who they are? Do you know her? Yes, she is my cousin. Here is a letter for you. If we go to day he cannot come with us. Is he there? Is it he? We speak of them. They are good horses and I take care of them. If thou art good I will love thee.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE VERB.

He is asleep. They are walking in the garden. She is very kind. Write your letter. Who did that? The horse kicked him. Trees grow luxuriantly in those climates. He threw off his clothes and jumped into the river and saved the boy from being drowned. The architect that built your house, drew the plan of mine. Come soon. When will he arrive? I do not know. Have you said your lesson? Repeat that word. I want you to explain the meaning of that sentence if you can.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE ADVERB.

I desire you to speak slowly and distinctly. Do not walk so fast. That is badly done. He acted wisely. Come hither. It is there. They are just gone out but will *return soon.* You always come late. Stay here till to-morrow.

Perhaps it may be so. It is nearly finished. I am almost ready. It is true indeed. Can it really be true? She is elegantly dressed. That is carelessly done.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE PREPOSITION.

Give it to me. Do not take it from her. They live in London. I was then at Lyons. It is under the table. The pens are upon my desk. Throw it into the fire. We sailed along the coast, and then amongst the isles. We passed through the gate and went across the bridge.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING THE CONJUNCTION.

You and they shall be rewarded because you have been industrious; but he has been idle; therefore he must stay and finish his lessons. Neither John nor Henry is there, and whether they are gone out or not I must stay. Unless they return, I may not see them. However that may be, it is all the same.

☞ When the pupil is able to distinguish each respective part of speech from the other without hesitating, he should then be practised, in parsing on the *accidence of the declinable parts of speech.*

QUESTIONS* IN PARSING ON THE ACCIDENCE OF ARTICLES.

Lect. IV. Par. 1 *to* 4.

Definite or indefinite? Singular or plural? When does *a* become *an?* Is *a* ever employed before an aspirated *h?* Is *a* ever used before a vowel?

* To add answers to every question, would be almost tantamount to a repetition of the whole of the rules in the Grammar, which would only serve to increase the book to an unnecessary size. Answers will therefore be subjoined to such questions only, as appear of difficult solution.

EXERCISE.

The boys are playing in the garden. The dog and the cat are not the only domesticated animals. When you have read the fable, do not forget to read the moral. The tailor has brought you a coat and a waistcoat. Buy me a hat. It is an hour since. She is an heiress. It is a happy idea. An historical novel. A lion and a unicorn. A wild horse. A young man.

QUESTIONS IN PARSING ON THE ACCIDENCE OF NOUNS.

The Kind. Lec. V. Par. 1 *and* 2.

What does a common noun mean? What is a proper noun? What is a collective noun?

EXERCISE.

George is gone to the city of Dublin. Africa is a vast peninsula. The river Mersey. Demosthenes was an Athenian patriot and the most admired orator amongst the ancients. Milton, the author of "Paradise Lost," was born in London in the year 1608.

Number. Par. 3 *and* 14.

How many numbers have nouns? How is the plural number formed of the greater part of nouns? How is it formed of nouns ending in *ch*, *sh*, *s* and *x*? Of those ending in *y*? Of those ending in *f*, *ff*, *fe*? Of those ending in *o*? Name those nouns that are irregular in the formation of their plural. Name some of those that are always used in the singular; and of those that are always used in the plural.

EXERCISE.

Here is a cup and a saucer, a plate, a dish, and a spoon; a knife and fork and a glass. Bring me a match. Where is the brush? A large fox. A fine baby. A diligent boy. *I want a loaf.* Do you hear the echo? A full cargo. A

Corinthian portico. A cousin-german. An iron bedstead. A cupful.

Gender. Par. 17 *and* 18.

What is the meaning of gender? How many genders are there? Name them. How do you distinguish the gender of a noun?

EXERCISE.

The general gave orders to the soldiers to procure fuel for their wives and children. The huntsmen hunted the hares with their dogs. The oxen and cows were driven to market. The poulterer sells hens and chickens and fowls of every description. I have bought a table, some chairs, a carpet, and a sofa. Is he a friend or a relation of yours? Where are your associates? I esteem the writings of good writers.

Case. Lec. VI.

What does the case of a noun mean? It means the different positions in which a noun may be placed with regard to another noun, pronoun, verb or preposition.—What case is that noun in? The nominative.—Why? Because it names a person or thing that acts, or that exists, and it governs the verb A.—Why the genitive? Because it is the possessor of the noun B.—Why the dative? Because it is the person or thing to which the noun C. is sent or addressed.—Why the accusative? Because the action of the verb D. falls on it. It is governed by the verb.—Why the ablative? Because it is the noun from which the noun E. is separated or taken. Or, it represents the person or thing that is instrumental in performing the action expressed by the verb F.—Decline the noun *man*, *book*.

Note. The pupil cannot be very deeply questioned on case till he has been taught to know the power that verbs and prepositions have over the governed cases. It is then that his ingenuity may be exercised on the cases while *parsing on the Promiscuous* Exercises.

EXERCISE.

The Chinese claim a very remote antiquity. Sesostris built the principal temples of Egypt. Give the paper to Edmund, that he may write a letter to his brother and send it by the servant. Copy that rule from Peter's book. The Romans had many public granaries from which they distributed corn to the poor. This is for Anthony. The construction of temples was adapted by the ancients to the nature and functions of the deities. I went from Calais to Paris.

QUESTIONS IN PARSING ON THE ACCIDENCE OF ADJECTIVES.

The Degrees of Comparison. Lec. VII. Par. 2 *to* 14.

How many degrees of comparison are there? Name them. What does the positive express? What the comparative? What the superlative? How many states are there in the comparative degree? What are they called? How is the comparative of equality formed? How the comparative of superiority? How the comparative of inferiority? What is the distinction between the superlative relative and the superlative absolute? How are they formed? How is the comparative and superlative of adjectives of one syllable generally formed by their termination? What are the exceptions to this rule? Name the irregular comparatives and superlatives? How are comparatives and superlatives formed of adjectives of two or more syllables? What effect has the termination *ish* in adjectives?

EXERCISE.

My task is long, yours is longer, but Walter's is the longest of the three. She is as handsome as her sister, more amiable than her cousin, but less talented than her friend. That is the finest work I have ever read. It is a most beautiful idea. She is thinner than Emma and shorter than *Anne. This is* the easiest lesson I have had. The Roman *empire fell by its* own very detestable corruptions: all man-

ıd were opposed to its most unbearing military despotism. e earliest recorded Greek painters were Cleanthes and dices of Corinth, and they were earlier than Homer. e Greeks excelled in sculpture more than in painting: ir great masters were Phidias and Praxiteles. The st transcendant genius of the middle ages was Michael gelo, who was a most excellent painter, a very superior lptor, and a clever architect: indeed the Italians for ny centuries were the most celebrated artists of all rope.

ESTIONS IN PARSING ON THE ACCIDENCE OF PRONOUNS.

Personal Pronouns. Lec. VIII. Par. 2 to 5.

What are personal pronouns? Which is the first, the ond, the third personal pronoun singular? Name their rals? How many genders have personal pronouns? cline all the personal pronouns; masculine, feminine, uter, and common genders respectively, in all their cases. hat case is that pronoun in? What person, number, nder? How do you know it is the nominative, the nitive, the dative, the accusative, the ablative?

EXERCISE.

Is it he or she that is to take the message to him? Be ou diligent. He spoke neither of me nor of thee. They e you. Do you speak of them or of us? He sent her e message by him. She says that the bonnet does not her; it is too large. We did not see you. Is this for e or for her? They are gone with him. He said nothing her nor of them. Will you explain that rule to me, cause I do not understand it. Give it to them. Are u going yourself? They speak of themselves. He is eaking to himself. Let her go by herself.

Possessive Pronouns. Par. 6 to 8.

What do possessive pronouns denote? Of how many *nds are they? Name them.* What variations are they

subject to? Of what person and number is that possessive pronoun? Of what case?

EXERCISE.

Give me my book and take yours. Our house is larger than his or hers, but his garden is smaller than ours. Is this mine or theirs? It is not thine. Do thy duty. Your cloth is fine, but I do not like its colour, it is too light. Put my books and yours in their places. That is his own house. Is that your own coach?

Demonstrative Pronouns. Par. 9 to 11.

Of what use are demonstrative pronouns? Name them. What does *this* refer to? What does *that?* Are they subject to any variation of number, gender, person, or case? When they have reference to time, which of them refers to the present, which to the past, and which to the future? Of what use are the words *former* and *latter?*

EXERCISE.

This boy and that have not said their lessons. These pens which I have in my hand are better than those that you have. Give these books to those boys. I speak of that person. This letter was brought by that man. I do not speak of these enlightened times, but of those days of darkness and superstition. Never cherish pride nor vanity; the former will render you odious; the latter, despicable. Value truth and sincerity; the former is the basis of all excellence; the latter of every manly virtue.

Relative Pronouns. Par. 12 to 14.

Of what use are relative pronouns? Name them. What is the meaning of the antecedent? The person or thing to which the relative refers.—Does the antecedent precede or follow the relative? It generally precedes, but sometimes *follows it.*—Which of the relative pronouns refers to persons? *Which* to things? And which to either persons or

things? To what person and number does *who* refer? To what person and number may *that* refer? To what person and number may *which* refer? Do any of the relative pronouns vary on account of case? In what capacity is the word *what* used? What case is that relative in?

EXERCISE.

The man who wrote the pamphlet, for which he was imprisoned, and whose papers were seized. To whom was the letter addressed, and by whom was it sent? The boys who are here. Send those boys up, whose names are on the list, and whose behaviour you complained of. The ladies that were at the ball. Which are the men that did the work? From which of these books was it extracted? By what means was it done? Who is that person? Which are the lessons? Whose pencil is this? From whom do you come? What is that? On what was it written?

QUESTIONS FOR PARSING ON THE ACCIDENCE OF VERBS*.

The Kinds or Species. Lec. IX. Par. 2 to 6.

How many kinds of verbs are there? Four.—Name them.—Auxiliary, active, passive and neuter. Which are the chief auxiliaries? What is their use? What does an active verb mean? When does an active verb become reflective? What does a passive verb denote? How are passive verbs formed? What does a neuter verb imply? Point out the verbs in the following exercise, and describe the kind of each respectively.

EXERCISE.

I have finished my lessons. Write your letter. Send him to me. They had finished their writings before I com-

* It is presumed that by the time the pupil arrives at parsing the verb, he will have already learnt the conjugations of the different kinds of verbs. The verb being the very essence of a sentence, the learner should be gradually initiated in all its various inflections as early as possible.

menced mine. She is beloved by her friends. Bring your book. Have you been out? They are esteemed by every body. You walk too fast. Thomas has forgotten his word. Call him. Who gave you that? We have bought a house. You were seen by them. They amuse themselves. He slept soundly. Have you rested yourself? She dances well and sings sweetly. He sings a good song. You have betrayed me. Learn your task. Do you ever dream? I dreamed a very singular dream the other night. Bounty is more commended than imitated.

REGULAR, IRREGULAR, IMPERSONAL, AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Par. 8 *to* 11.

What does a regular verb signify? By what means do you know when the verb is regular? When is a verb said to be irregular? What is an impersonal verb? What is a defective verb? Point out the verbs in the following exercise, and describe whether they are regular, irregular, impersonal or defective.

EXERCISE.

Where does he live? Application overcomes difficulties. Repeat what you have said. I thought I could do that. Answer me. Who tore the leaf and destroyed the book? Has he kept his promise? You must let me alone. They ought to be here. They might still be in time. He would not go. If it should rain it will be necessary to defer our journey. Do nothing you would wish to conceal. May I go? You must not say so. I shall come if it should be fine.

The Modes. *Par.* 14 *to* 18.

What is the meaning of the modes of verbs? How many modes are there? What are they called? What does the infinitive imply? Has it any reference to time or person? What does the indicative imply? What the *subjunctive?* What are the two propositions included in

conditional phrases called? Which of the two is preceded by a conjunction? Is the conjunction always expressed? Which proposition precedes the other? Of what use is the imperative?

EXERCISE.

Do you know what you say? Probably he may soon arrive. Defend good principles. I will give you the book provided you make good use of it. Strive to learn. If he promises to do better I will excuse him. If he should promise to be obedient I may perhaps indulge him. He who often swears distrusts his own words. You must accustom yourself to rise early. I come to ask leave to go.

The Tenses. Par. 19.

What does tense imply? Which are the three grand divisions of time? Into what are these subdivided? Into the compound tenses. — Why are they called compound tenses? By what names are these compound tenses designated? Name the tense of each of the verbs in the following

EXERCISE.

I love music. He has spoken to me. They will come to-morrow. I had seen him before he came to England. We shall have finished our work before twelve o'clock. Money makes fewer friends than it does enemies. One that is perfectly idle will be perfectly weary. Those who creep through bushes will meet with briars. Who did that? He sold his horse and bought another. Is that the man of whom you speak? Perhaps he may be there. If they should be at home let me know. Probably he may have arrived already.

Person and Number. Par. 20.

How many persons have verbs? How many numbers? Point out the person and number of each of the verbs in the following

EXERCISE.

I spoke to him this morning. She is diligent, but he is not. We intend to go before they come. What do you say? Art thou sincere? Every light has its shadow. False friends are worse than open enemies. Conduct and courage lead to honour. Virtue and modesty have more charms than beauty and riches. Who is he? Who are they? I am of opinion that he does not understand what they mean.

ON THE USE AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE TENSES.

Lec. X.

The following questions on the employment of the tenses, should now be put to the pupil, and if his capacity enable him to illustrate his answers with appropriate examples, he should be required to do so; if not, the teacher should assist him in forming them, by pointing out the peculiarities in every tense, and by citing examples which may tend to make the pupil perfectly acquainted with their nature and use.

Present Tense of the Indicative. Par. 1.

What does the present tense denote? What is meant by the present state of things? It means that state or condition in which things are found to be existing or occurring at the present time.—What is meant by existing habits and customs? What effect on the hearer has the relating of a past occurrence in the present tense? When is the present tense employed to express any thing future? What peculiar effect has the present tense when it is formed with the assistance of the auxiliary *do*?

Preterimperfect Tense. Par. 2.

What does the preterimperfect tense represent? What do you understand by an action having occurred coexistently with another? It signifies that an action took place at the *time that* another event was occurring.—What is meant by *former customs*, habits, and so forth, of individuals?

Preterperfect Tense. Par. 3.

When is the preterperfect tense employed? Can this tense be used when the period in which an event occurred has entirely passed?

Preterpluperfect Tense. Par. 4.

When should you employ the verb in the preterpluperfect tense? Can it be employed to express a past event that occurred during a period of which the present time forms a part?

Future Tense. Par. 5.

What does the future tense indicate? What are the signs of this tense? Does this tense limit the action to any definite time?

Future Perfect Tense. Par. 6.

What does the future perfect tense denote? Is the action described in this tense limited by any particular circumstance?

Shall and Will. Par. 7.

When does *shall* denote simple futurity? When does it denote resolution, promise, threat, or command? When does *will* denote simple futurity? And when does it denote resolution, promise, or menace?

Tenses of the Subjunctive Mode. Par. 8.

To what tenses may the subjunctive in its simple form have reference? To what in its compound form? Which are the signs of this mode? Are the signs always expressed? What does *may* denote when used as a sign of the subjunctive? What does *might*? What does *could*? What does *would*? What does *should*?

May, might, could, would, and should, as Principal Verbs. Par. 10.

When *may* and *might* are employed as principal verbs, *what do they denote?* What does *could* denote? What

does *would?* And what does *should?* What does each of the following sentences imply? *I may go when I think proper. He might have gone when he liked. He could not say his lesson, for he did not know it. He would read from his own book and no other. You should read more distinctly.*

The Imperative. Par. 11.

To what time has the imperative mode reference, as regards the commanding or the entreating? What time has the performance of the thing commanded or entreated to be done, reference to?

Participles. Par. 12 *and* 13.

What are participles derived from? Why are they called participles? How many participles are there, and what are they called? What does the participle active denote in its capacity as a verb? Of what use is the participle past in its relation to verbs? When is the participle active employed as a noun? When as an adjective? When is the participle past employed as an adjective?

The Progressive form of the Verb. Par. 14.

What form of the verb is that called, when it is formed with a tense of the verb *to be* and a participle active? Does this form necessarily imply that the action *is*, *was*, or *will be* actually taking place at the time of naming it?

QUESTIONS ON CERTAIN ALTERATIONS THAT SOME OF THE REGULAR VERBS UNDERGO.

Lec. XI. Par. 4.

We have seen that all the regular verbs in the English language have their past tense and past participle ending in *ed;* but that there are some regular verbs that have to undergo a few alterations in certain modes, tenses, and persons. Name what modes, tenses, and persons are subject to such alterations. Give the general standard. What alterations *does a regular* verb undergo when the infinitive ends in *e?* *What when the* infinitive ends in *ie?* What when it ends *in ch, sh, ss, x,* or *z?* What when it ends in *y*, immediately

preceded by a consonant? What when it ends in *y*, immediately preceded by a vowel? What when the infinitive of one syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel? What when the infinitive of more than one syllable has the accent on the last? What when the accent is on any other syllable but the last?

Verbs used Negatively and Interrogatively. Par. 6 to 8.

In negative phrases, where should the negative *not* be placed with regard to the verb? What other manner of forming negative sentences is there when the verb is in the present or the past tense? There is still another way of employing the verb negatively, in every mode and tense; can you name it? How is the nominative situated with regard to the verb in interrogative sentences? In what tenses may a verb be used interrogatively without an auxiliary? When the verb is used interrogatively with a negative, where should the negative particle be placed with regard to the noun and the verb? Show how interrogative phrases with a negative may be formed in the present and past tenses without the auxiliary *do*.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON ALL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The questions to be put to the pupil on the following exercises, should be the same as those already employed in the different parts of speech respectively, with such others as the teacher may conceive might tend to facilitate the comprehension of the peculiarities in each part of speech, whether taken individually, or in connexion with other parts of speech. The learner should again be made to understand that a word may belong to more than one part of speech, according to the sense in which it is used. That the word *that*, for instance, is sometimes a relative, sometimes a demonstrative pronoun, and sometimes a conjunction. That adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are frequently mistaken for each other: to avoid which, he should observe *that adverbs have* reference to verbs, adjectives,

and adverbs; that prepositions are employed with reference to nouns and pronouns; and that conjunctions connect nouns, pronouns and the members of a sentence.

It would fill a volume to lay down all the questions that the teacher should put to the pupil in parsing. In exercising the learner's ingenuity, regard must be paid to his capacity, which every judicious teacher will endeavour to inquire into, before questions of difficult solution are put. Wherever words occur that have more than one meaning, the pupil should be carefully questioned on them. In parsing the compound tenses of verbs, such as (*They*) *will have arrived.* (*If he*) *should be seen;* if the pupil cannot at first conceive that the three words make but one verb, he should be made to parse each word separately, and then be told what voice, mode, and tense the three words together form.

It is difficult to impress on the mind of a beginner, that the same verb may be active in one instance, and neuter in another. The difference between the active voice, *A robber killed him*, and the passive, *He was killed by a robber*, should be carefully explained to him. These and many other difficulties require the utmost care on the part of the teacher to explain by oral instruction; which should be elucidated by appropriate examples, at seasonable opportunities; and as often as practicable the pupil should be made to form examples himself, either with the tongue or in writing, to the extempore rules given by the teacher. By this method the pupil's talent will be developed, his ingenuity exercised, the extent of his capacity shown, and the teacher will know how far his lecture has been comprehended.

EXERCISES.

It is by industry that we are able to preserve and perfect our faculties. The knowledge of our own selves teaches us, that, as we are born to be members of society, the best means of acquiring happiness is to labour for that of others. True glory is always accompanied by modesty and humanity. If you ask me whom I consider the most happy, I should say, those that are satisfied with their own condition. We

should employ whatever wealth we may have acquired, as useful auxiliaries to ourselves and to our fellow creatures, and avoid that prodigality which would dissipate it without necessity, and avarice which renders its possession useless. No man is wise at all times nor knowing in all things. Diligence seldom goes without its reward. He is more instructed than Richard, but less talented than Robert. To be pleasing it is only necessary to be natural. By reading good works we enrich the mind; by conversation we polish it. Macbeth murdered Duncan in the year 1039, and after a very popular reign of eighteen years was slain by the English. Shakspeare died in 1616, and Cervantes died in the same year. The man who has injured you will seldom forgive you. There is nothing more opposed to the duty of man, than the spending his time in idleness. A wise man changes his mind, a fool never does. If nobody takes notice of our faults we easily forget them ourselves. It is useless to attempt to learn a science, unless we attend to its principles. Every man should act conformably with his station. Nothing can oppose virtue and courage. Seek not for a good man's pedigree. You would live happily if you considered an honest employment the best patrimony. It is by industry that we are able to preserve and perfect our faculties: it therefore becomes necessary that every individual should, at an early period of his life, follow some useful and honest profession, proportionate to his talents and to his station. The objects of the exterior world affect us through our senses. It is better that thou shouldst suffer without cause, than that thou shouldst have cause for suffering. Follow the wise few, rather than the vulgar many. Counsel is to be given by the wise, the remedy is to be administered by the rich. Wheresoever a man lives well, there is his country. Fortune sometimes favours those whom she afterwards destroys. What often passes for cleverness is as often a want of moral principle. Magna Charta was a charter for the nobles, extorted from King John, and extended to the people, by the petition of right conceded by Charles the First and by the Bill of Rights.

Glory accompanies virtue as if it were its very shadow. Of these three books, mine is the most instructing, yours is very amusing, and his is the least useful. Though prudence is more frequently of use than any other intellectual quality, nevertheless, it is one that many are deficient in. Prefer wisdom to riches; the former is the foundation of happiness, the latter is often accompanied with cares. Seek not eagerly after pleasure; she is seldom found where we think to find her. No one ought to be punished twice for the same offence. That justice which prevents crime is better than that which punishes it. An act done against my will is not my own act. It is the duty of man to labour for his preservation and his perfection, in order to acquire all the happiness of which he is capable; but in such a manner that he shall not infringe on the laws of God, nor on those of society. Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray, the author of Telemachus, was born in the year 1651. Whoever secretly envies another allows that person's superiority. The cultivation of the faculties of the soul is of the highest importance to mankind. Geology may explain what fables often mystify. To form the mind is to form correct ideas of things. Man's actions are spiritual, corporeal, or mixed: those that originate in the soul are spiritual, the others are physical.

QUESTIONS FOR PARSING ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

Articles. Lec. XVI.

When several words follow one another in a sentence, each requiring the indefinite article, what rule is to be observed with regard to the employment of *a* or *an*? What different meaning would the omission of the article give to such phrases as the following? *He has a few books. He has shown that he has a little talent.* What is the meaning of a noun being taken in a particular or definite sense; and *say whether or not* the article should be used before such

nouns? What do you understand by a noun taken in a general or unlimited sense? Is the definite article required before nouns of this description? When a noun in the singular number embraces a whole kind or species, does it require the definite article? What difference would the omission of the article make in the meaning of such sentences as the following? *I have seen the painter and the sculptor. The books were bought by a clergyman and a poet.* When should the article be repeated before every noun enumerated in a sentence?

☞ The following Exercises are to be corrected by the pupil, according to the rules of Syntax to which they refer. In the KEY, they will be found corrected. Those sentences which are omitted in the KEY, are correct, and intended only as elucidations to the rules.

EXERCISE.

An arrogant and proud disposition is overbearing.
A sensible and amiable woman is an ornament to society.
A wounded and injured reputation is seldom cured.
Even little knowledge of ourselves requires penetration.
A little presence of mind shows great weakness.
Spirit of truth dwells in meekness.
Miseries of idleness none but idlers truly know.
Mirth of fools inspires melancholy.
Loquacity of fools is a lecture to the wise.
The truth never fears rigid examination.
The utility is preferable to grandeur.
The empty vessels make the greatest sound.
The envy is honour's most secret enemy.
Oak is the king of the forest.
Dog is a faithful animal.
I addressed the judge and barrister.
She is a milliner and a dress-maker.
The inundation swept away a great portion of the horses, trees, cattle, and inhabitants.
All the men, women, and children of the village were put *to flight.*

Nouns. Lec. XVII.

In what number must the verb be put when it has for its nominative, two or more nouns singular, connected by *and*? If two or more nominatives be separated by *or*, or *nor*, what number is the verb required to be in? What rule must you follow with regard to the verb, when two or more nouns singular, but of different persons separated by *or* or *nor*, occur in a sentence? And what, when the nouns are of different numbers, as well as persons? When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun come together in a sentence referring to different things, in what case must the first be put? What rule must you observe with regard to the sign of the possessive case, when several nouns in this case come together in a sentence? What do you understand by nouns in apposition—and when several of these nouns occur, what is to be observed respecting their case? When does a noun of multitude require a verb in the singular and when in the plural? Can a part of a sentence constitute a nominative to a verb; and also an objective after a verb? When the verb *to be* stands between two nominatives of different numbers, which should it agree with? In what case must the noun or pronoun be that is employed in the answer to a question? When adjectives, participles and infinitives are employed as nouns, in what manner are they to be treated? What do you understand by the nominative case absolute?

EXERCISE.

Division and contention is to be avoided.

Patience, perseverance and prudence overcomes the most difficult obstacles.

Neither wealth nor rank are equal to a tranquil mind.

A good maxim or a good counsel are never out of season.

Either you or I am mistaken.

Neither is she nor you required.

Either he or his brothers say so.

Neither do I, nor they, nor she believe it.

Every bodies business is nobodies business.

John's, Frederick's and Edward's lessons have been heard.

I admire Charlotte, but not her sister's singing.

I bought the paper at Johnson the stationer's.

Such was the general's of the army's order.

He praised the poet's (as he styled him) genius.

Jame's assiduity has deserved his parents's approbation.

This is a poem of Thomson.

Have you read Hume's, the author of the History of England?

The army were defeated.

The meeting have adjourned.

The people complains that it has not been justly dealt with.

To tell our own secrets is folly, to divulge the secrets of others is treachery *.

Remember your duty to God and man.

Neglect not that which it is your duty to perform.

The merit of the work is the truths which it contains.

His misfortunes were his vice.

Who did it? Me.

Who were present? Only us.

Is it us that are summoned? No it is them.

Personal Pronouns. Lec. XVIII. Par. 1 *to* 3.

In what manner do personal pronouns agree with the nouns, the place of which they supply? In what number and person must the pronoun be when it refers to nouns of different numbers? In what case must the pronoun be that follows a comparative?

EXERCISE.

He who is occupied in business knowledge is an ornament to.

We naturally hate whatever makes us despise ourselves.

If you do not feel right you are sure to judge wrong.

Happy him who limits his wants to his necessities.

* The pupil is to point out the nominative *phrases* in this sentence, and the objective in the two following.

When your son is old enough to value friendship, let him know that it is the most sacred of moral bonds.

That your children should be esteemed, let their manners be simple and their language unaffected.

People often purchase gold which costs them too dear.

The longest day has its end.

My preceptor has often told me that I should consider time as a precious gift.

You and them were spoken to and you did not answer.

Him and me start to-morrow and we must get ready early.

Where are the books and the paper? Show them me.

William studies more than me; but I work more than him.

She loves Mary more than I.

Relative Pronouns. Par. 4 to 12.

To what person, number and gender may a relative have reference? How is the relative situated with regard to the verb? What does *who* refer to? How is it formed in the genitive case? How, in the dative, accusative and ablative cases? What does *which* refer to? Does it alter its form in any of the cases? What may *that* refer to? Can it be governed by a verb or preposition? When there are two antecedents, the one a person, and the other not, what relative is generally employed? In what other instances is *that* used? In what capacity is *what* used? What does the verb agree with, that follows a relative? When the antecedent is not expressed, what stands in its place as the nominative to the verb? When a relative has two antecedents of different numbers, which antecedent does the verb agree with that follows the relative? When the relative and the antecedent have reference to two different verbs, which is the nominative to each verb?

EXERCISE.

He whom would reap well must sow well.

He is idle whom might be better employed.

Those who practice virtue are those who I esteem and whose examples I will endeavour to imitate.

Let him not sow brambles which must go barefooted.

Who acts greatly is truly great.

Perfection is the point at what all should aim.

Presence of mind is a quality which is necessary at all times.

He is a writer whose maxims should be borne in mind and on which writings so much praise has been bestowed.

Meddle not with that that concerns you not.

Learn to unlearn that you have learned amiss.

It is manners with learning what makes the gentleman.

I admire both the writings and the writer whom you speak of.

Who, which has neglected an opportunity has not repented it?

Honesty is the first step which leads to greatness.

All which glitters is not gold.

Of which use are riches without happiness?

What must he expect who deceives others?

You are the person who speak the most highly of him.

Thou art the boy that deserveth the prize.

His is a happy memory who forgets nothing so soon as injuries.

Verbs. Lec. XIX.

In what must a verb agree with its nominative? What case does an active verb govern? Does a neuter verb govern? By what is the noun governed that follows a neuter verb? When a relative is the object of the verb, how is the relative situated with regard to the verb? What verbs admit infinitives after them? What verbs govern the infinitive without *to*? With what verbs are the active verbs *to lay* and to *raise*, liable to be confounded? What is the past participle of irregular verbs sometimes liable to be confounded with? In what case is the noun or pronoun that follows the verb *to be*, when the verb has another noun or pronoun before it? When several words accompany a noun,

which, together form a nominative case, how are you to be guided in putting the verb in the singular or the plural number? Do all conjunctions require the verb that follows them to be in the subjunctive mode? Does the same conjunction always require the subjunctive mode? By what are you to be guided to know when a verb must be put in the subjunctive mode? Is the conjunction always expressed before a verb in the subjunctive? Are the signs of the subjunctive always expressed?

EXERCISE.

I frequently endeavour to pardon in others what I do not always pardon in myself.

You know as well as any one does that words sometimes wounds more than swords.

Few vices often obscures many a virtue.

State and grandeur, however envied, brings cares.

The ancient philosophers, and particularly Cicero, who have written a book on the duties of man, have given forth in their writings some of the fundamental principles of social truths.

He that contemn a small crime commits a great one.

A variety of studies undertaken together, rather tend to puzzle than to improve.

If you be attending to him you cannot be studying your lesson.

Rejoice the truth and maintain it.

Try and gain a knowledge of yourself.

He has resolved to amend.

Strive and set bounds to your desires.

I observed it to move.

I perceive it gradually to evaporate.

Let me I beseech you to remain.

Lie that book upon the table.

Where have you lain it.

Rise that higher.

The bakers rose the price of bread because the price of *corn has been* risen.

It is unwholesome to lay abed too late.

You have layed down long enough.

I rised earlier than you have.

You have drank three cups whilst I drunk one.

Has he began his lesson?—Yes, he begun it this morning.

Which horse run the race?

I thought it might be he that went.

We are them that are opposed to it.

It is her that wrote the letter.

I imagined they to be the persons spoken to.

James with his friend is going to the country.

The captain with his brave crew have captured the ship.

If the book convey useful knowledge, as doubtless it does, let him read it.

However innocent pleasures are, the excess is always criminal.

If he subdues his passions every duty of life will appear easy to him.

Humanity requires that we (should) assist our fellow creatures in need.

He will be happy provided he limits his wants to his necessities.

If there was no other proof that man is destined for society, than that which is deduced from his faculty of speech, it suffices to prove that he is intended to live in society.

If man was but to consider his true interest, he would soon discover the value of sincerity.

Truth never fears examination, however rigid it is.

Though truth languishes it never perishes.

Were we to lessen our desires we would increase our wealth.

It were useless to pretend to have a knowledge of others while we have but little of ourselves.

Adverbs. Lec. XX. Par. 1 *to* 5.

How are adverbs generally placed with regard to the verb in its simple form, and how in its compound form?

How is it placed with regard to the adjective? Does not the strength of adverbs frequently depend on their situation? Can you illustrate this fact by an example? What is liable to result from the misplacing of the adverb? Give an example. What effect have two negative adverbs, when employed in the same clause? Are not two negatives sometimes used in an affirmative sense? Is it proper in some instances to employ adjectives and adverbs indiscriminately?

EXERCISE.

Industry never is unfruitful.
Mildness better governs than anger.
Those books are printed well.
A small leak has sunk frequently a great ship.
A really good maxim never is out of season.
A truly wise man aims at nothing out of his reach.
I would go willingly if I could.
One unkind expression generates infallibly others.
Dissemblers deceive often themselves.
Contentment only can be purchased by a virtuous life.
I proved once that I was able to accomplish it.
He is seldom or ever at home.
Nothing overcomes passion no more than silence.
No fears could never deter us from acting correctly.
Nor did I not foresee the results.
It is neither unbecoming nor useless.
It is an exceeding good example.
It was a remarkable fine day.
Come here.
He is gone there.
Where are you going?
I am going from hence to York, and from thence to Bath.
From whence think you that I come?

Prepositions. Par. 6.

What preposition governs the genitive case? What prepositions govern the dative? What, the ablative? In

referring to the names of countries, cities, towns, &c., when is the preposition *to* employed, when is *at*, and when is *in*? When a preposition does not govern any of the cases, what is it employed as?

EXERCISE.

Humility is the foundation of virtue.
It is he that I speak of.
If nature be defective, repair it by industry.
Who did you send the man to?
Who is the message for?
Sin is often caught from infection.
Who was it done by?
There is no general rule without exception.
Make provision for want, in time of plenty.
Fear unbalanced with hope is desperation.
Is it I that you are displeased with?
Who did you receive it from?
Who did he go with?
He lives in Hammersmith.
They reside at Dublin.
I left her in Bristol.
I saw him in Venice.
They were seen at Holland.
He went after I arrived.
I came before you left.

Conjunctions. Par. 7 *to* 11.

What cases of nouns and pronouns do conjunctions connect? When do they connect the same modes and tenses of verbs? When do they connect different modes and tenses? Name those conjunctions that are used in pairs.

EXERCISE.

Division and contention are upheld by pride and arrogance.
Neither you nor me will be appointed.
Do not undertake rashly, nor perform with a cold indifference.

It is hypocrisy to teach virtue and yet practise vice.
They came first and they went last.
If we subdue not our passions they subdue us.
Quarrels are easily begun, but do not end so easily.
Envy is as baneful to the soul as to the body.
As you think, so you should speak.
This or that will do.
Nothing is as contagious as bad example.
Nothing is so secret as time cannot discover.
Though I am tired I will go on.
Difficulties, whether of great magnitude or not, must be met with energy.

ON PARSING ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

An ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence: the sentence is not complete without the ellipsis; but words are frequently omitted, both in writing and in speaking, for the sake of brevity or elegance. An ellipsis is not, however, sanctioned, if it weakens the force of a sentence or renders its meaning obscure. In the following example, the insertion of the ellipses (which are inclosed in brackets) would render the sentence heavy; while their omission neither weakens its force nor obscures its meaning.—"Those things which strike our immediate eyes, *have* a greater effect upon ourselves than those [things have] which we hear recounted; but [they have] less [effect] perhaps upon others to whom they are accurately detailed than fictitious narratives [have]."

In the following example, the omission of the words in *Italics*, though the sentence would be comprehended without them, would in a great measure weaken its strength.

"There was pageant and revelry in the city; *there was* splendour and glitter in the court, *and in* the streets, and *in* the churches."—Still, however, there are ellipses in this example, for the sentence, to be complete, would run thus:—*There was pageant*, and *there was* revelry in the city;

and there was splendour, and *there was* glitter in the court, and in the streets, and in the churches.

When parsing the first example, in coming to the second demonstrative pronoun *those*, it will naturally be asked *those what?*—and the answer will be *those things;* which noun *things* is the nominative to the verb *have.* In the next ellipsis, the pronoun *they* refers also to *those things*, and it is the nominative to the verb *have* that follows it, which verb *have*, governs the noun *effect*, in the next ellipsis; and the noun *narratives* is the nominative to the last ellipsis *have.*

Ellipses occur most frequently: indeed we seldom see a sentence complete in all its words; but the mind supplies those that are wanting. However, in the formation of sentences, it must be carefully borne in mind, that the words expressed, have a perfect grammatical concordance with those that are left out, otherwise ellipses are not allowed. The following sentences are incorrect.

He loves labour, for if he *needs* it not for food, he may for physic.

The verb left out should be *need*, and not *needs;* for example; for if he *needs* it not for food, he may *need* it for physic. The ellipsis is therefore not allowed.

Wisdom and prudence *govern* the wise, but passion the foolish.

The ellipsis in this example is improper, because *governs*, and not *govern*, is required in the latter member of the sentence.

In the superscription of a letter, in the title page of a book, in advertisements, and in many other instances, a great number of words are left out; and in analysing such things, regard must be paid to every ellipsis. Take, for instance, the following superscription of a letter.

Mr. James Wilkins,
Solicitor,
Gray's Inn,
London.

These unconnected words mean as follows:

This letter is for Mr. James Wilkins, *who is a* solicitor, *and who resides at* Gray's Inn, *which is in* London. And in parsing the superscription, the whole of the words left out in it must be taken in mind.

As an instance of the words omitted in a title page of a book, take the following.

A History of the Rise and Progress
of the Literature of Europe.
By Adam Adams, B.A.
London:
A. Z. and Co.
1840.

In this short title, a number of words are omitted; for, written in full, it would run thus:

This is a History of the Rise and Progress of the Literature of Europe, *which has been written* by Adam Adams, *who is a* B.A. *The book is published in* London, *by* A. Z. and Co., *in the year* 1840.

PUNCTUATION.

In writing, certain *points* are made use of to render sentences comprehensible, and incapable of misconstruction. The points used in composition are, the *comma* [,], the *semicolon* [;], the *colon* [:], and the *period* or *full stop* [.]. Also the note of *interrogation* [?], and the note of *admiration* or *exclamation* [!]. The omission or misapplication of any of these points would frequently render a sentence ambiguous, obscure, or unintelligible. Nevertheless, the proper application of them, particularly as regards the comma and the semicolon, depends much on taste, on the particular nature of the subject, and on the degree of gravity we would give to it. The following rules, however, will, in a great measure, assist the learner in comprehending the importance of punctuation.

THE COMMA.

1. In compound sentences, a comma is generally used to separate each member of it; as, *Notwithstanding the number of military exploits, which Coriolanus achieved, and the many services which he rendered to his country, he was refused the consulship, by the people.*

2. When words are connected by a conjunction, the comma is seldom used; but if the conjunction be suppressed, the comma supplies its place; as, *Anger* and *haste hinder good counsel. He is a worthy, good man.*

3. When the natural order of a sentence is inverted, a comma is used before that part of the sentence, which, in the natural order, goes first; as, *Of yourself, speak not highly. With what concerns us not, we should never interfere.*

4. Explanatory phrases used in a sentence are separated by commas; as, *Mary, Queen of Scots, grand-daughter of Margaret, Henry the Eighth's sister*, succeeded her father, at

eight days old. Tacitus, a celebrated Latin historian, was born in the reign of Nero, one of the greatest tyrants that ever swayed the sceptre of Rome.

5. Sometimes a comma supplies the place of a verb understood; as, *Money may furnish the necessaries of life, and wisdom, the means of enjoying them.*

6. The persons we address, and which appear in an unconnected position in a sentence, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, *Sir, this letter is for you. Permit me, Captain, to observe*, &c.

Many other instances might be given, in which the comma should be employed, but which perhaps could not be reduced to any fixed rule. The comma marks the shortest pause in reading; and the smallest division in writing; and the employment of it in many instances, must be regulated by taste.

THE SEMICOLON.

1. When two members occur in a sentence, either having a mutual dependence on each other; or, that the former makes complete sense of itself, while the latter is dependent on it, they are generally separated by a semicolon; as, *As a bird is known by its note; so is a man known by his discourse. Custom surpasses nature; be careful therefore, what you accustom yourself to.*

2. Sometimes the semicolon is used to separate the members of a sentence that are independent of one another in their grammatical construction, and might form complete sentences of themselves individually; but are united into one sentence, by which they appear to give strength to each other; as, *Against fortune oppose courage; against passion oppose reason. Acquire honesty; seek humility; practise economy; love fidelity.*

THE COLON.

1. The colon must not be used, unless it be after a phrase that makes full sense of itself; but to which something is *added, either* with the view of elucidating its meaning, or

containing some observation arising out of the nature of the phrase; as, *Favourites are like sun-dials: no one looks on them if they are in the shade. There are many ways to arrive at the end of a journey: the prudent man will choose the safest.*

2. When a quotation is made, it is generally preceded by a colon; as, *The motto on his coat-of-arms was: "Virtue is the only nobility."*

THE PERIOD, OR FULL STOP.

The period is used at the end of a sentence, whether simple or compound, that makes complete sense of itself, and has nothing added to it, to which it is necessarily connected; as, *Knowledge is the treasure of the mind. Virtue, like a rich stone, is ever best when plain set.*

THE NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

The note of interrogation is used to denote that a question is asked; as, *Who is there? Do you speak to me?*

THE NOTE OF EXCLAMATION OR ADMIRATION.

The note of exclamation denotes that the words which precede it, express some sudden emotion of the mind; or some surprise, or astonishment; as, *No more! Begone! What do I hear! Can that be real!*

Besides the foregoing points, there are other characters used in writing, which, however, do not affect the grammatical construction of a sentence—such are,

The PARENTHESIS (), which is used to enclose in the body of a subject, some explanatory phrase, intended to elucidate, or, to add force to it; as, *Thales* (one of the seven wise men of Greece) *was the first who calculated with accuracy a solar eclipse.* It is, however, now becoming very general, to employ *commas* instead of the mark of the parenthesis.

The CARET [ʌ]. When any word, or passage, has been

omitted, the caret points out the place where the omission has occurred, and the part omitted is generally interlined above the caret.

The QUOTATION [" "] is employed to enclose any word, or idea, that the writer borrows either from the writings or the words of another; as, *Whenever the rights of man are in question, we should bear in mind the maxim:* "Public rights are to be preferred to private."

BRACKETS [] are employed to enclose in the body of a rule, or sentence, some word or words to explain its signification.

The BRACE { is used to connect two or more words or lines, having a common reference to some word or words, to which the centre of the brace points. In poetry it is used to connect three lines, having the same rhyme.

The HYPHEN [-] is used to connect compound words; as, a *man-servant*, the *bed-curtains*. It is also employed at the end of a line, when the line does not admit the whole of the last word; the hyphen then shows that the remainder of the word begins the next line.

The APOSTROPHE, or ELISION [ʼ] is employed to denote that some letter is left out, the place of which it supplies. It is generally used in poetry; as, *hurl'd* for *hurled; I'll*, for *I will; o'er*, for *over*.

The ELLIPSIS [—] is also sometimes used to denote that some letters are omitted in a word; as, *L—d*, for *Lord*. Sometimes two or more asterisks are employed for the same purpose; as, *E***y*, for *Emily*.

The ACUTE ACCENT [ʹ] is put over a syllable to denote that it is to be pronounced *short*.

The GRAVE ACCENT [ˋ] denotes that the syllable is to be pronounced *long*.

The BREVE [˘] is put over a vowel to denote its *short* sound, and

The LONG [¯] to denote its *long* sound.

The DIÆRESIS [¨] is put over a diphthong to denote that *both* vowels are to be sounded.

The PARAGRAPH [¶] denotes the commencement of a new subject.

The SECTION [§] divides a lecture or chapter into portions.

The ASTERISK [*]
The OBELISK [†]
The DOUBLE DAGGER [‡]
The PARALLELS [‖]

refer to some notes in the margin, or the foot of a page, or at the end of the book. When these marks are not sufficient, recourse is had to small letters of the alphabet, or to numerical figures.

The INDEX [☞] is employed to point out something which we wish should be particularly noticed.

OF CAPITALS AND ITALICS.

A capital letter must begin the first word of every book, chapter or paragraph; the first word of every sentence that comes after a full stop; the first word of a quotation coming after a colon; the first word in the answer to a question; and the first word in every line of poetry. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are to be written with capitals. Proper names of persons, places, &c., begin with capitals; the appellations of the Deity; common nouns when personified, and adjectives derived from proper names: also, generally, words that are abbreviated.

Italics are used in printing, to denote that the words printed in these characters are such as are intended to strike the reader's eye more particularly than the rest. In writing, a line is drawn under such words.

LIST OF

ABBREVIATIONS WITH THEIR EXPLANATIONS.

	Latin.	*English.*
A.		Answer.
A.B. *or* B.A.	Artium Baccalaureus	Bachelor of Arts.
Abp.		Archbishop.
A.C.	Ante Christum	Before Christ.
Acct.		Account.
A.D.	Anno Domini	In the Year of our Lord.
A.M.	Ante Meridiem	Before noon.
	Anno Mundi	In the Year of the World.
A.U.C.	Anno Urbis Conditæ	In the Year of the (building of the) City (of Rome.)
Bart.		Baronet.
B.C.		Before Christ.
B.C.L.		Bachelor of Civil Law.
B.D.	Baccalaureus Divinitatis	Bachelor of Divinity.
B.L.	Baccalaureus Legum	Bachelor of Laws.
B.M.	Baccalaureus Medicinæ	Bachelor of Medicine.
Bp.		Bishop.
C. *or* Cap.	Caput	Chapter.
C. *or* Cent.	Centum	A Hundred.
C.B.		Companion of the Bath.
Capt.		Captain.
Co.		Company.
Col.		Colonel.
C.P.		Common Pleas.
C.P.S.	Custos Privati Sigilli	Keeper of the Privy Seal.
Cr.		Creditor.
Ct.		Count.
Cwt.		A Hundred weight.
D.D.	Divinitatis Doctor	Doctor of Divinity.
Deg.		Degree.
Deut.		Deuteronomy.
Do.	Ditto	The same.
Dr.		Doctor, *or* Debtor.
Dwt.		A Pennyweight.
D.	Denarius	A Penny.
E.		East.
Eccl.		Ecclesiastes.
E. G.	Exempli Gratia	For Example.

	Latin.	*English.*
Ep.		Epistle
Esq.		Esquire.
Ex.		Example, *or* Exodus.
Exor.		Executor.
F.	Fiat	Let it be done.
	Forte	Strong.
F. A. S.	Fraternitatis Antiquariorum Socius	Fellow of the Antiquarian Society.
Feb.		February.
Fig.		Figure.
F. G. S.		Fellow of the Geological Society.
F. H. S.		Fellow of the Horticultural Society.
F. L. S.	Fraternitatis Linneanæ Socius	Fellow of the Linnæan Society.
Fo.		Folio.
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F. S. A.	Fraternitatis Artium Socius	Fellow of the Society of Arts.
Gall.		Gallons.
G. C. B.		Knight Grand Cross of the Bath.
Gen.		Genesis, *or* General.
Gent.		Gentleman.
H. M. S.		Her Majesty's Ship, *or* Her Majesty's Service.
Heb.		Hebrew.
Hhd.		Hogsheads.
J. H. S.	Jesus Hominum Salvator	Jesus the Saviour of Men.
Ib. *or* Ibid.	Ibidem	In the same place.
I.e.	Id est	That is.
Incog.	Incognito	Unknown.
In.		Inches.
Int.		Interest.
Inst.		Instant, *or* of this month.
K.		King.
K. B.		Knight of the Bath.
K. C. B.		Knight Commander of the Bath.
K. M.		Knight of Malta.
K. P.		Knight of St. Patrick.

	Latin.	*English.*
K.T.		Knight of the Thistle.
Kt.		Knight.
Lec.		Lecture.
L.	Libra	A Pound.
Lib.	Liber	A Book.
L.D.		Lady Day.
Ldp.		Lordship.
Lev.		Leviticus.
Lieut.		Lieutenant.
LL.D.	Legum Doctor	Doctor of Laws.
L.S.	Locus Sigilli	The Place of the Seals.
M.A.	Artium Magister	Master of Arts.
M.B.	Medicinæ Baccalaureus	Bachelor of Medicine.
	Musicæ Baccalaureus	Bachelor of Music.
M.D.	Medicinæ Doctor	Doctor of Medicine.
Mem.	Memento	Remember.
M.S.	Memoriæ Sacrum	Sacred to the Memory of.
Messrs.		Messieurs (*French*). Gentlemen.
M.P.		Member of Parliament.
Mr.		Mister.
Mrs.		Mistress.
MS.	Manuscriptum	Manuscript.
MSS.	Manuscripta	Manuscripts.
M.	Mille	A Thousand.
N.		North, *or* Note.
N.B.	Nota Bene	Take Notice.
Nem. con.	Nemine contradicente	Unanimously.
Nem. diss.	Nemine dissentiente	
No.	Numero	Number.
N.S.		New Style.
Obt.		Obedient.
Oct.		October.
O.S.		Old Style.
Oxon.		Oxford.
Oz.		Ounces.
Par.		Paragraph.
Per Cent.	Per centum	By the Hundred.
P.M.	Post Meridiem	Afternoon.
P.R.S.		President of the Royal Society.
Prof.		Professor.
P.S.	Post Scriptum	Postscript.
Prob.		Problem.
Prop.		Proposition.

	Latin.	*English.*
.		Question, *or* Queen.
Q. D. . .	Quasi Dictum . . .	As if it were said.
Q. E. D. . .	Quod erat demonstrandum	Which was to be demonstrated.
Q. E. F. . .	Quod erat faciendum .	Which was to be done.
Q. Pl. . .	Quantum placet . .	As much as you please.
Qr.		Quarter.
Q. S. . . .	Quantum sufficit . .	A sufficient quantity.
Q. V. . .	Quantum vis . . .	As much as you will.
	Quod vide	Which see.
Qy.		Query.
R. . . .	Rex. Regina . . .	King. Queen.
R. A.		Royal Artillery, *or* Royal Academician.
Rec. . . .	Recipe	Take.
Rect.		Rector.
Rev.		Reverend.
R. M.		Royal Marines.
R. N.		Royal Navy.
Rt. Hon.		Right Honourable.
Rt. Wpful.		Right Worshipful.
S.	Solidus	Shilling.
S.		South.
St.		Saint, *or* Street.
Sec.		Secretary, *or* Seconds.
Sr.		Sir.
Sq.		Square.
Ult. . . .	Ultimo	Last, *or* Last Month.
V. . . .	Vide	See.
V.		Verse.
Viz. . . .	Videlicet	Namely.
V. R. . . .	Victoria Regina . . .	Queen Victoria.
Xmas.		Christmas.
Xn.		Christian.
&c., *or* etc. .	Et cætera	And so forth. And the rest.

PROSODY.

PROSODY teaches the true sound and just pronunciation of words*.

In prosody we have to consider the *accent*, the *quantity*, the *emphasis*, the *pause*, and the *tone*.

Accent means the force which is laid on a particular syllable of a word; as, *in'-ter-change*, to *in-ter-change'*.

Quantity means the time which is occupied in pronouncing a long, or a short syllable; as, *rĕ-lāte*, *cāre-fŭl*.

Emphasis is a peculiar stress laid upon such words in a sentence, as we would wish to mark more particularly from the rest; as, *It is better to* act, *than to* speak *well*.

Pause is a suspension of the voice intended to draw the attention of the hearer to some particular word or words; as, *By reading—we enrich the mind; by conversation—we polish it*.

Tone means a particular modulation or inflection of the voice, which we should be careful to suit to the nature of our expressions.

* Prosody, as relates to poetry, treats on the laws of versification.

OF RHETORICAL FIGURES.

A *rhetorical figure*, or a *figure of speech*, is a peculiar expression of a sentiment different from the ordinary way.

In writing, as well as in speaking, *ornamental* language is frequently used, in order to render discourse more emphatic, striking, or elegant: for this purpose different rhetorical figures are employed; the principal of which are, *simile*, *metaphor*, *allegory*, *hyperbole*, *irony*, *antithesis*, *metonymy*, *synecdoche*, *prosopopœia*, *apostrophe*, *climax*, *incrementum*, *exclamation*, and *interrogation*.

A *simile* is that figure by which we compare one object with another; as, *A faithful friend is like a strong bulwark. A gentle disposition is like an unruffled stream—it glides smoothly along its course.*

A *metaphor* is a simile without any formal comparison; as, *A faithful friend is a strong bulwark.*

An *allegory* is the union of several metaphors, continued through several sentences; as,

> Beauty is but a vain, a fleeting good,—
> A shining gloss, that fadeth suddenly,—
> A flow'r that dies, when almost in the bud,—
> A brittle glass, that breaketh frequently,—
> A fleeting good, a gloss, a glass, a flow'r,—
> Lost, faded, broken, dead, within an hour.
>
> SHAKSPEARE.

Hyperbole is the excess of figurative comparison; as, *Oceans of tears. Rivers of blood. He is as strong as a lion, and as swift as lightning.*

Irony is a figure in which we speak directly contrary to what we mean.

Antithesis or *contrast*, is a figure by which we exhibit things of opposite qualities, so as to render them more striking by the contrast; as, Vice *is infamous, though in a prince, and* virtue *honourable, though in a peasant.* Virtue *is a garment of honour, but* wickedness, *a robe of shame.*

Metonymy is a figure by which we use the name of one thing for that of another, allied to, or dependent on it, as the *cause* for the *effect*; the *effect* for the *cause*; the *subject* for the *attribute*; the *attribute* for the *subject*; *badge* for *office*, &c.; thus,

Cause for effect; as, *The beauties of Shakspeare*; that is, —the beauties of the *works* of Shakspeare.

Effect for cause; as, *His consoling words dried her tears*; that is,—removed the *grief* that caused the tears.

Subject for attribute; as, *His heart was stone*; that is,—as *hard* as stone.

Attribute for subject; as, *Scorn deceit*; that is,—the deceitful *man*.

Badge for office; as, *The crown commands and the sword obeys*; that is,—the *sovereign* and the *soldier*.

Synecdoche is a similar figure to *metonymy*; by it a *part* is used for the *whole*, and the *whole* for a *part*; a *definite* number for an *indefinite*; thus,

A part for the whole; as, *The waves rose mountains high*; that is,—the *sea* rose.

The whole for a part; as, *The world speaks well of him.*

Definite for indefinite; as, "*A thousand slaves will bend their necks to thee*;" that is,—*many* slaves.

Prosopopœia or *personification* is a figure by which life and action are attributed to inanimate objects; as,

How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank.—SHAKSP.

. the rosy finger'd morn
With blushes on her face,
Peeps o'er yon azure hill.—SOMERVILLE.

This figure is also used when we wish to introduce a person who is either absent or dead, either as speaking, or spoken to.

Apostrophe. By this figure the speaker abruptly breaks off his discourse, and addresses some other being, living or dead, or some inanimate object; as, "*Hail! solitary ruins, ye sacred tombs, ye silent walls!*" "*O war! what art thou? At once the proof and scourge of man's fallen state.*"

Climax, *amplification*, or *gradation*, is a figure by which the circumstances of an object are gradually heightened. In the strict climax the finishing expression of the first member of a sentence, begins the second; that ending the second member, begins the third, and so on; as, *Idleness leads to vice*, *vice leads to intemperance*, *intemperance* to *infirmity*, and *infirmity to death.*

Incrementum is a species of amplification by which the circumstances are heightened, without a strict climax; thus, YOUNG, in speaking of the life of man, says,

> We gaze around;
> We read their monuments; we sigh, and while
> We sigh, we sink, and are what we deplored!

Exclamation is a figure of speech that expresses some strong emotion of the mind; as,

> Farewell! our hope was born in fears,
> And nursed mid vain regrets! MOORE.

Interrogation is a figure by which the emotions of the mind are expressed by asking questions; as,

> Shall I be left abandoned in the dust,
> When fate relenting, lets the flowers revive?
> Shall nature's voice to man alone unjust
> Bid him, though doomed to perish, hope to live?
> BEATTIE.

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